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ABSTRACT

The twelfth in a series of research reviews investigating adult education in Great Britain, this paper focuses on adult education activities in local geographic areas and on the concept of "community" and its enhancement of adult education services. After part 1 summarizes the other reviews in the series, part 2 discusses the role of local education authority (LEA) areas, the organization and content of adult education, informal educational modes, a case study of an LEA, and research concerned with local areas. Part 3 examines the concept of community education; considering the definition and creation of "community"; local, democratic, and lifelong learning emphases; service to particular groups; the roles of the interventionist, social activist, and action research; and community education as an extension of adult education. Part 4 describes local adult education projects in Great Britain, including attempts to increase working class participation, widen the clientele, and serve Asian immigrants. Part 5 looks at community colleges and schools in Great Britain and North America, while part 6 addresses the role of the media in the local community. Training provisions for local and community educators and the contributions of national and regional bodies to community education are considered in parts 7 and 8. Finally, part 9 offers recommendations for future research. Results of a survey of adult education fees in 1981-82 are appended. (HB)

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REVIEW OF EXISTING RESEARCH IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

VOLUME XII

ADULT EDUCATION AND THE LOCAL COMMUNITY

By

A. H. Charnley, M. Osborn, A. Withnall

1983

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ADULT EDUCATION AND THE LOCAL COMMUNITY

by A.H. Charnley, M. Osborn and A. Withnall
with a section by S. McNair

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ADULT EDUCATION AND THE LOCAL COMMUNITY

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This twelfth review of research has proved the most difficult to write for two reasons: first, much of the subject matter has already been dealt with in previous reviews and, second, the title of this particular review poses serious definitional problems which arise from the linking of two distinct concepts, local and community. Yet there are good reasons for accepting the title. It is useful to focus on the activities which may be found in a local geographical area and it is important to consider the concept of 'community' as used in adult education because it has been the basis of much recent experimentation and, sometimes, innovation. Indeed, the Alexander Report recommended a national commitment in Scotland to 'community' education rather than 'adult' education.[1]

In these reviews we have thought of adult education as a process through which an individual gains in knowledge or self-knowledge. Willingness to study rather than entry qualifications is the norm in adult education.

1.1 Review of previous reviews

We have shown in our first review how an individual may seek to use different aspects of the adult education service throughout his life-time and we have emphasised the heterogeneity to be found within each group of consumers. Volume 1, Mature Students, demonstrated the range of provision, the extra-mural boards and the Workers' Educational Association, the Open University, the correspondence colleges, the polytechnics, the universities,[2] the colleges of education, the local authority adult education centres, the local authority short-term residential colleges, the colleges of further education, the long-term residential colleges, the independent institutions, the voluntary organisations, the broadcasting organisations, and we mentioned various examples of collaborative provision. Our theme was that the variety and richness of provision reflected the demands of the consumers. We showed, in particular, that the local education authorities were providing for the largest number of students (at least two million) and that the local education authorities were the essential support for a remarkable provision of services by voluntary organisations.

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1. Alexander Report: Adult Education; the Challenge of Change, Edinburgh, HMSO, 1975.
2. See: Tight, M., Part-time Degree Level Study in the United Kingdom; the Report of an Enquiry, Leicester, ACACE, 1982.

We argued that most participants were satisfied but that there were considerable difficulties which deterred would-be students, one of which was the basic problem of finding out just how much was on offer. Our general theme, written in 1980, has been confirmed in the Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education report, Adults; their Educational Experience and Needs, 1982, which states: 'people who do participate in continuing education take a wide variety of courses and seem generally satisfied. Existing provision does, therefore, seem to fit the needs of those currently participating in it'.

Next, we reported on one of the largest groups of potential students. In Volume 2., The Elderly, we showed that about 15% of the population in 1980 was aged 65 years and over. In 1979, there were nine and a half million people over pension age in Britain. Adult education offered the elderly an opportunity to continue to learn, to maintain contacts, to sustain health and mental activity. Since we reported on the development of 'Troisième Age' arrangements in France and North America, various groups have been set up in Britain based on the same ideals, but the main providers in England and Wales still are the local education authorities. We particularly noted that generally adult education and specifically pre-retirement education should encourage the elderly to offer their services as volunteers, as tutors, as organisers and as administrative and support staff. Though difficult to prove, it seems commonsense to argue that each day an elderly person remains active, the State is saved the high costs of institutional care. It is often overlooked that in Britain, for every £1 the government spent on jobless benefit in 1981, £3 was spent on aid for the elderly. It appeared to us, therefore, that this group of adults would deserve priority in adult education and that their interests in arts and crafts and, by definition, non-work related or informal education, would be recognised in all local areas.

We continued to consider various groups within the potential or actual adult education student body in Volume 3, The Disadvantaged. We found the term 'disadvantaged', to be virtually useless, for there were many varieties of disability, mental, physical and social, and services needed to be specifically relevant to the particular type of handicap. The broadcasters were in a unique position to reach a handicapped person in his or her home but for effective action to follow, cooperation with tutors at a local level was essential. In particular, the roles of the local education authorities through their advisers and organisers or in

support of the organisers of voluntary schemes were paramount in any record of substantial achievement. Of outstanding success was the adult literacy scheme, which in 1978 reported some 61,000 students in LEA-organised literacy classes with an involvement of nearly 34,000 voluntary tutors. But when considering each particular group of disadvantaged, we found that the evidence suggested a wide variety in the quantity of local provision. This is of some importance, for by definition, the disadvantaged are often those least able to travel across area or local authority boundaries. There was evidence to suggest that cooperation at local level between the education and social services departments within councils and between council staff and the informal voluntary agencies was highly desirable.

Distance education, either by itself or in conjunction with other types of education, is provided nationally and within localities. In our review of Open Learning and Distance Education (Volume 4), we showed that national provision is best known through that of the Open University and broadcasting organisations, and local provision by such an example as that of the Open College Federation of the North West. Of particular interest were the examples of cooperation between national providers and local providers. 80% of 600 colleges of further education used BBC educational series in 1973/74. The major difficulty in cooperative ventures of this type was that broadcasters tended to operate on a shorter or different time-scale from local providers. Thus the local provision of tutors and learning sites lagged behind the broadcasts. But such is the speed of technological change that we may now aver that the video-recorder and time switch enables the local provider to replay a national broadcast at a time or place to suit his own convenience.[1] The evidence seemed to suggest that broadcasting has a continuing and increasingly important role in adult education, but these opportunities will not be fully exploited unless provision at local level becomes more flexible about enrolment dates and better organised so far as advice services to intending students are concerned. The newer technologies imply that local tutors should be trained in dealing with and understanding the new techniques.

We mentioned before the role of the local education authority as the supporter and encourager of voluntary action. We found that a large

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1. Robinson, J., Learning Over the Air, London, BBC Publications, 1982.

number of voluntary organisations identified some form of educational purpose but a great many stated that they had neither the funds nor the personnel to enable them to carry out evaluative or other research projects. Some voluntary organisations are nearly completely educational in aim, others serve other purposes but some members may be trained in educational methodologies. Because of the lack of published research we were limited to describing the activities of only some voluntary organisations in Volume 5, The Voluntary Field. Nevertheless, we found enough evidence to confirm that in each locality the voluntary organisations constitute a major resource, and we hazarded the opinion that some 15 million adults are members of one or more voluntary organisations and that about 7 million are potential customers for adult education courses. Such evidence as existed suggested that there is not a choice between local education authority provision and the voluntary but rather a need to ensure the growth of effective voluntarism linked to local authority supporting services. Our view was confirmed by Lady Young who, when discussing local authority financial support for voluntary bodies, said 'I would ask them (the local education authorities) to bear in mind that what is a tiny part of their budget may be crucial to the voluntary body'.

Given the richness of provision and the highly individual circumstances of the adult student, educational information and advice is extremely important for nearly all learners. Some require further help, namely educational guidance and counselling. Volume 6, Educational Information, Advice, Guidance and Counselling for Adults, noted that the use of the word 'counselling' by itself failed to discriminate between the fairly simple procedures of giving advice and the highly skilled processes of counselling. In 1979 two expert and authoritative bodies, the Advisory Council concerned with England and Wales and a Committee of Enquiry in Northern Ireland argued for a service in every local area which would provide all four aspects of assistance; namely, information, advice, guidance and counselling. These reports, in fact, reiterated the recommendations of the Russell Report of 1973, the Alexander Report of 1975 and the Venables Report of 1976. The need for such a service has become even greater in the last few years as employment conditions have changed and as the range of choices has increased through the operations of the Manpower Services Commission.

Two main institutions were concerned with all four aspects of 'counselling': the local authority careers service and the Manpower Services Commission, both of which were linked primarily to problems of

employability. Most local activity was based on educational establishments concerned with providing information about their own services. There were a number of ad hoc ventures which also provided advice and guidance and a small number of exciting pilot schemes had been established to provide a counselling service.

Our research suggested that the availability of professional, or even informed advice, depended very much upon the area in which the adult lived and the educational institution or body which an adult happened to contact. There was some evidence to show that libraries in most localities provided information but it was doubtful if many offered more than that. There was much concern expressed about the lack of proper training for those responsible for giving information, advice, guidance and counselling.

The training of adult educators is clearly the basis of a proper adult education service and consequently our review, Volume 8, The Training of Educators of Adults, deals with the topic. Fortunately, there were three major research reports dealing with the training of adult educators in England and Wales; to wit, Stock, A.K. (1969), Elsdon, K.T. (1975) and Graham, B. and Daines, J. and others (1982). A reading of these three reports gave an interesting account of the development of provision over a decade. The latest report suggests that though the general view was one of cautious optimism so far as provision and demand for training were concerned, there was one region which registered pessimism. Most regions pointed to differences between areas within their region. Although there seemed to be some progress towards the establishment of a national system of training opportunities for part-time tutors, the local responses in the context of financial stringencies were so varied that so far as any particular tutor was concerned, training possibilities depended upon where he or she lived. At the most local point, the centre in which the part-time tutor operated, considerable disparity emerged in the accounts of the back-up of resources and facilities and the amount of guidance and advice from centre heads. The trainers were mainly drawn from the full-time professional staff in adult and further education. Most local education authority advisers or organisers accepted some form of training role in 'training the trainers' courses which were usually under the sponsorship of the Regional Advisory Council. Graham et al suggest that informal participatory methods should continue to predominate in training as this methodological approach lies at the heart of practice in the field, and thus the training process establishes a paradigm for practice. The informal participatory method is based on the assumption that whatever

the subject matter, each adult has a unique experience which, shared with other adults in the learning group contributes to the learning processes of the group and to the personal growth of the individual contributor. The tutor's skill lies in providing an example of respect for his/her fellows, in ensuring cooperative and individual participation and in guiding the group towards the specific educational objectives they have chosen to study. Informality of approach follows from such aims for at each meeting the tutor must encourage an atmosphere of individual confidence and participation and be prepared to exploit a variety of learning techniques to progress. Clearly, the skills required of a part-time tutor are of a high order, but at the same time, certain personal qualities are also demanded, principally a sense of personal modesty and respect for other human beings. Given these qualities and an enthusiasm for the subject matter, it seems that training courses may improve the effectiveness of tutors. Often these courses enable an intending tutor to judge his own suitability.

To those in the adult education service, this attitude to learning with one's students is what is meant by the 'great tradition'. It is a tradition, for it has been handed down from generation to generation of adult educators; it comes from experience of practice rather than from theory. Thus, adult educators have tended to seek a psychological, theoretical structure which explains and which accounts for their experience. With this in mind, we reviewed research concerned with The Psychology of Adult Learning and Development (our Review of Research Volume 11). We found that any current discussion of adult learning behaviour suffers from the 'rudimentary development of research on voluntary education' (Patricia Cross), the lack of sufficient systematic data on adults (Bernice Neugarten), 'the inadequacy and incompleteness of such simple socio-demographic variables as age, sex, income and schooling' and 'the need to employ more sophisticated conceptions of the participation process'. (Anderson, R.E. and Darkenwald, G.G.). Paula Allman of Nottingham University has shown how one theory, the maturational theory, was largely based on samples drawn from children or populations of institutional elderly people. Moreover, her brilliant analysis of cross-sectional and of longitudinal studies has demonstrated the inadequacies of much of the basic research. However, this healthy criticism has at least cleared away much of the debris and there are now some theories which seem to have possibilities as a general psychological explanation of particular practices. In our opinion, the contemporary works of outstanding promise are those of

primarily adult educators, such as K.P. Cross (United States), J. Mezirow (United States), S. Brookfield (United Kingdom) and K. Rubenson (Sweden). All these authors take into account the development of the human personality, allow for the effect of certain transitional events and reactions to those events and consider the implications of such transitions to group relationships and other modes of learning. All these authorities are concerned with the psychological-cultural domain rather than the purely psychological. There is a vast literature on the operational techniques of conducting group work and this confirms much of the practice in adult education. We did not deal with this as we interpreted our brief to be an examination of theories which explain the why rather than the how. Our conclusion was that the authors we have named are in the process of developing their theoretical structures and that it appears that present practice based on experience and tradition is built upon a firm foundation capable of assimilating the new technological opportunities. Our cautious view of psychological theories which are not grounded in experience of the world of adult education appears to be shared by our colleagues in North America.[1]

One of the transitions men or women may have to face is the loss of their job. Owing to its relevance today, we conducted a study of Adult Education and Unemployment (Volume 9) in contemporary Britain by reviewing written evidence whether published or whether contained in a letter replying to a general enquiry from us. We found that the strongest influence on what happens to people when they lose their job is their age and this is a strong and direct relationship. Further, a major difficulty was to make the unemployed aware of the services offered by adult education and to persuade them to take advantage of these services. One of the problems experienced in 1980/82 was that the sudden and large increase in the unemployed occurred at a time when the adult education service was already stretched. Nevertheless, in many areas many types of informal schemes were piloted. This experience suggested that expansion depended largely on resources being provided, particularly the appointment of a coordinator-adviser in each local authority area. Such an appointment would both ensure the coordination of services to the unemployed from the social services departments, education departments and manpower services

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1. Our impression from conversations in seminars attended by adult educators from the USA and UK.

agencies and through 'gearing' bring into action the voluntary organisations and volunteer elements. The review deals with the particular problems of the older unemployed and their role as both consumers of and resources for adult education, and implies that if the unemployed are to be properly included, then the adult education service must develop even more flexible responses to their heterogeneous requirements and provide a continuous all year round service.

Although the causes of contemporary unemployment are complex it still appears that certain individuals with mathematically based skills are in short supply. In our study, Volume 7, Numeracy and Mathematics for Adults, we reported that the mathematical potential of girls and women relative to that of boys and men had been underestimated to a degree which could only be described as disgraceful. The evidence we reviewed implied that the mathematical abilities of girls would not be fully developed until the attitudes of adults changed and adult education had a responsibility to contribute in this respect. Further, there was a role for adult education in supporting the adult learning of mathematically based skills. But David Stringer's most thorough report on the multi-media course 'Make it Count' noted that 'there are huge gaps in the provision made for the mathematical education of adults. All too often, the provision that is in existence is based on the proposition that on entry the student will already possess a fair competence. This proposition does not hold water'. Our impression was that there were few local areas in which the provision of courses in mathematical understanding could not be improved.

Much of the above depends on whether or not resources are made available to the adult education service. We examined The Economics and Organisation of Adult Education in Volume 10 of our review. It was crystally clear that because adult education often takes place in schools and colleges of further education, which are primarily day institutions, it is virtually impossible to arrive at the true cost of the service. Further, there is the whole background of services of the main provider, the local education authority, which again are not usually solely concerned with adult education. In economic terms adult education is, at present, a marginal activity. The estimate of costs depends therefore on accounting assumptions. Further, much of adult education is paid for by the students and many of the resources are provided freely by volunteers and voluntary organisations. The supply of the service is largely a question of morality; do you believe adult education is a

factor in creating the quality of life that makes a civilised society? We could suggest that there may be financial and economic benefits. For example, maintaining the health and activity of the elderly may cut national health expenses, helping the unemployed may do so, raising adult standards of literacy and numeracy may increase national income; but how does one prove such propositions? Demand has been shown 'to be quite extensive', 'broadly for work related courses now during the working life, particularly in the case of men, and for leisure/culture courses for some future time or specifically for retirement'.[1] But the quantity of adult education demanded depends on fees; this can be proved. For example, in 1982, the number of people from outside Inner London taking part-time and evening classes at ILEA adult education institutes rose by more than 44% following the Authority's decision to halve fees for most non-residents.[2] Mee and Wiltshire (1978) demonstrated the association between rises in fees from 1975/76 to 1976/77. The irrationality of some fee increases has been such that one local education officer suggested 'that there is some evidence that rises in fees actually have reduced the total income from this source available to local authorities'. In such circumstances the planned percentage expenditure of 0.68 per cent on adult education derived from the government expenditure White Paper Cmnd. 8494 hardly seems to match the challenge of some:

- 9.5 million over pension age;
- 3.5 plus million unemployed;
- 2.0 plus million illiterate or semi-literate adults;
- 2.0 plus million innumerate adults.

To these figures we may add the sundry other responsibilities such as parent education which arise from such comments as 'schools and teachers will make no progress unless they harness the understanding support of their parents and their community.' (T.R.P. Brighouse, Chief Education Officer, Oxfordshire, in Education, 24/31 December 1982, p.491.)

But this refers to the overall national scene; the evidence we adduced suggested that there was considerable variation between local education authorities in fee policies, in charges for comparable hours of tuition and in allowances for the less wealthy. Thus the financial policy

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1. ACACE Report; Adults; their Educational Experience and Needs, 1982.
2. Education, 24/31 December 1982, p.494.

of the authority in which one resided largely determined the quality and quantity of provision of adult education in the administrative area. And the financial arrangements of particular adult education centres determined the kind of adult education in the local area.

The most general of the themes that emerge from all the above is that place of residence or of work largely determines the adult education service available to a student. Three other conclusions which are relevant to this specific text may be now identified, namely that:

- the main providers are the local education authorities which are responsible for administrative areas;
- so far as any individual student is concerned his or her area is determined by distance of travel to the centre of educational activity (and so, incidentally, his geographical area/community is not constant but liable to change as transport arrangements alter);
- individual students may form 'communities', that is be linked together by mutual interests; for example a shared interest in pre-retirement education or in ameliorating the condition of unemployment or in a broadcast adult education programme such as 'Digame'.

From this it follows that a 'community' may be defined as an area, but is just as likely to mean a shared interest with others beyond or within an area boundary.

For the sake of lucidity we shall divide, in the following text, the subject matter of 'the local community' into a section on the local administrative areas and local areas and a section on the concepts and aspects of practice of so-called community education.[1] In this way, the reader will be able to judge for himself or herself just how far the notion of the 'community' has advanced the provision of adult education.

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1. See Jennings, B. (Ed.), Community Colleges in England and Wales, Leicester, NIAE, 1980, for an assessment of the use of the word 'community' in the context of adult education.

2.0 LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITY AREAS AND LOCAL AREAS

2.1 An overview

2.1.1 The Organisation

LEA provision usually is through five major groups of institutions, listed in Mee and Wiltshire [1] as:

- Sp (Specialised)
- FE (Colleges of Further Education)
- Comm (Community Schools and Colleges)
- AY (Adult plus Youth)
- L (Leisure)

These are highly generalised descriptions of tendencies; there is a wide range of variance within each group. In Group Sp, adult education is conceived as a distinguishable and separate sector of education needing to develop its own organisation and institutions and being capable of doing so. There are four sub-types:

- full-time staff including teachers and other specialists; own teaching accommodation; large institutions mainly in cities and urban areas;
- some full-time staff (usually one); borrowed teaching accommodation; mainly in towns;
- mainly spare-time staff; borrowed teaching accommodation; small urban institutions;
- almost wholly spare-time staff; borrowed teaching accommodation; generally small rural areas.

In Group 2, adult education is conceived as part of FE. Adult education has to compete for funds with other departments. The strong FE departmental tradition of independence often protects its autonomy and its financial viability.

In the Community Group 3 adult education is conceived, along with the youth service, as one of the functions of the school which has a commitment to continuing education. Further and higher education cannot usually take place. The adult educator holds a part-time, joint appointment, and control of policy rests with the principal or headmaster/mistress. Some are longer established; small medium sized rural and suburban institutions with part-time staff and shared teaching accommodation; others, the more recently established, are large multi-purpose

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1. Mee, A. and Wiltshire, H., 1978

institutions with relatively small adult education programmes in inner city or rehousing areas with part-time staff and shared accommodation. The fourth group, AY, conceives adult education as a specialised and dispersed sector of education which may best be developed jointly with a similar specialised and dispersed sector such as the youth service. In urban areas they have some full-time staff but depend largely on part-time staff, borrowed or shared premises, and are medium sized institutions. There are smaller institutions in urban areas with no full-time staff. The fifth group, L, Leisure, treats adult education as a leisure activity and comes under the purview of the Recreation and Leisure Services Committee or the like. This is a recent development whose implications have not yet become apparent.

Mee and Wiltshire analysed the courses provided under the following headings:

- Craft and aesthetic skills courses
  - related to personal care and household economy
  - related to leisure time enjoyment and personal development;
- Physical skills
  - related to the maintenance of health and fitness
  - related to leisure time enjoyment and personal development;
- Intellectual and cognitive skills
  - such as language courses;
- Courses addressed to disadvantaged groups.

53% of courses provided by LEAs were in the 'Craft and aesthetic skills' group, 24% in 'Physical skills', 18% in 'Intellectual and cognitive skills' and 5% in courses addressed to the disadvantaged.

The figures Mee and Wiltshire produce suggest that the large Specialised Units and Colleges of Further Education were the major providers of courses for disadvantaged groups, and Community Schools and Colleges were the major promoters of self-governing and independent groups. Evidence from their interviews supported a contention that the Specialised institution with its own premises (Sp 1) was the most innovative and development oriented environment. Further education departments of adult education also displayed a high capacity for innovation, but Specialised institutions with their own day-time capacity had the edge in this respect. They also found that the most innovative institutions had supportive principals.

It could be argued that Mee and Wiltshire have suggested that supportive principals and staff qualified in the mores of adult education tend to be in Specialised institutions which can deploy their accommodation to meet the demands of their students.

2.1.2 The content of adult education

We will return to Mee and Wiltshire later; but first it is useful to remind ourselves of the content of provision which may be considered under three headings, each of which represents a continuum.

The first continuum is one of subjects. It ranges from the 'purely' intellectual (e.g. mathematics) at one end through various gradations to the 'purely' physical (e.g. football training) at the other. Elements such as manipulative skill, aesthetic sensibility, affective development, or cognitive strategies, all play their part throughout this range, though their proportional importance may vary.

The second continuum ranges from outer-directed to inner-directed courses. One extreme might be represented by a pre-arranged course based on an external syllabus and intended to enable students to pass GCE. The other extreme could be a course planned to investigate a problem area chosen by a group of students who work out content, objectives and methods together with their tutor. Between these a variety of gradations represent degrees of student autonomy, attempts on the part of organisers to identify requirements and devise courses to meet them, and standard course schemes.

The third continuum runs from personally oriented to community oriented content.[1] The extremes could be represented by, for instance, an art appreciation class specialising in country houses and a study group on drug addiction or urban poverty.[2]

2.1.3 The informal mode of adult education

There is a fundamental underlying approach which is regarded as the characteristic of adult education, namely, the informal approach, or the non-formal approach.

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1. See Wilcox, A., The Educational Functions of Community Centres, with special reference to South-East Lancashire, Manchester University, M.A. thesis, 1951 (unpublished).

2. Elsdon, K.T., Training for Adult Education, Nottingham, Department of Adult Education, University of Nottingham/National Institute of Adult Education, 1975.

Fordham has produced models contrasting formal and non-formal education which are modified from T. Simkins, Non-formal Education and Development. [1]

Formal		Non-formal
Long-term and general	Purposes	Short-term and specific
Credential-based		Non-credential based
Long cycle	Timing	Short cycle
Preparatory		Recurrent
Full-time		Part-time
Input centred and standardised	Content	Output centred and individualised
Academic		Practical
Clientele determined by entry requirements		Entry requirements determined by clientele
Institution-based	Delivery System	Environment-based
Isolated from socio-economic environment and from social action		Community-related
Rigidly structured		Flexibly structured
Teacher-centred		Learner-centred
Resource-intensive		Resource-saving
External	Control	Self-governing
Hierarchical		Democratic

But he suggests that to achieve a proper system of recurrent education there must be a convergence of the formal schools and non-formal education to a point where education is a diversified whole. [2] Though some local education authorities have taken the view that the informal or non-formal approach is emphasised by adding to their providing institutions or bodies the title 'community', some local education authorities retain in their provision a mixture of institutions which in

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1. See also Loughran, E. and Reed, H., Non-formal Educational Method and Materials and their Application to Community Education, Research Report, Massachussetts University, Amherst School of Education, 1980.

2. Fordham, P., 'The interaction of formal and non-formal education', in Studies in Adult Education, Vol. 11, No. 1, 1979.

their view reflects the diversity of adult education provision and the heterogeneity of demand of local people.

We emphasise that the 'average' LEA is a purely statistical abstraction. In reality local education authorities differ considerably from each other and local areas within authorities differ even more. For that reason, it is useful, as an example, to examine a local authority with a mixed institutional provision.

2.2 A case study: Adult Education Provision in Essex, by S. McNair

The current situation

The County Council is the largest provider of educational opportunities for adults in Essex. The majority of the students engaged in education in the County join courses provided through the Community Education service, with a smaller number being provided for through the colleges and institutes of further and higher education (although the latter tend to attend for longer hours). In addition to this, formal courses are provided within the County by the Open University, the Extra-mural Departments of the Universities of Cambridge and London, the Eastern and London Districts of the Workers' Educational Association, the Essex Federation of Women's Institutes, the Manpower Services Commission, the National Co-operative Education Association and, on a small scale, by a variety of voluntary organisations. In addition, correspondence tuition is provided for adults by the National Extension College and a variety of commercial correspondence institutions. A certain amount of vocational education for adults is provided directly by employers through their own training organisations and a number of trades unions are also active in the education of their members. Officers of the Authority maintain contact with all these agencies from time to time and a number receive financial assistance from the Authority in order to support their provision where this is complementary to that of the Authority. While it is undoubtedly true that in a number of fields these agencies make provision which it would be difficult or impossible for the Authority to undertake directly, it is certainly true that the largest number of students and courses is provided by the Authority itself. In all, approximately 4,600 adult courses are mounted each year by those agencies for whom some statistical information is available. Of these some 4,200 are provided by the Authority's own institutions.

The attached document outlines the structure of adult education provision by the Authority, with details of the institutions making provision, the

premises and resources available to them, and the range and nature of provision offered.

The legal basis of the adult education service

The Authority's statutory duty to provide adult education is laid down in the Education Act 1944, Sections 41 and 42, as follows:

41 subject as hereinafter provided, it shall be the duty of every local education authority to secure the provision for their area of adequate facilities for further education, that is to say:

(a) full-time and part-time education for persons over compulsory school age; and

(b) leisure time occupation in such organised cultural training and recreative activities as are suited to their requirements, for any persons over compulsory school age who are able and willing to profit by the facilities provided for that purpose;

Provided that the provisions of this section shall not empower or require local education authorities to secure the provision of facilities for further education otherwise than in accordance with the schemes of further education or at county colleges.

42 (i) every local education authority shall, at such times and in such form as the Minister may direct, prepare and submit to the Minister schemes of further education for their area, giving particulars of the provision which the Authority proposes to make for fulfilling such of their duties with respect to further education ..... , as may be specified in the directions.

(iv) a local education authority shall, when preparing any scheme of further education, have regard to any facilities for further education provided for their area by universities, educational associations, and other bodies, and shall consult any such bodies as aforesaid and the local education authorities for adjacent areas; and the scheme, as approved by the Minister, may include such provisions as to the cooperation of any such bodies or authorities as may have been agreed between them and the authority by whom the scheme was submitted.

The Essex Education Committee prepared and submitted a scheme in 1949, since which time no Minister has requested a review or submission of a new scheme and none has been undertaken. There is currently some concern about the legal position in which this leaves authorities and the government have indicated, in principle, a willingness to prepare further legislation both to clarify the duty and to legalise the present position (since it is possible that much current further education provision is technically 'ultra vires').

Responsibility for the service

The Adult Education Service within the County of Essex is the responsibility of the Further Education and Youth Sub-Committee of the Education Committee and is administered through the Further and Community Education Branch under a Principal Education Officer. Within the Branch there are two distinct administrative sections, each of which has responsibility for a number of areas of adult education.

Where adult education takes place in colleges of further and higher education it is the responsibility of the Further Education Colleges Section, and operates under normal Further Education Regulations. The bulk of adult students within the County are, however, enrolled in courses administered through the Community Education and Careers Section of the Branch, under the Senior Education Officer (Community and Careers). Within this Section are the five Community Education Officers who have an Area responsibility for adult education as well as for the youth service and a range of other community activities.

The Adult Education Officer for the County has a managerial responsibility within the Community Education and Careers Section and an advisory role in relation to adult education in colleges.

Whereas colleges of further and higher education have governing bodies and separate budgets, provision in the Community Education Section is centrally administered and financed through Area Community Education Estimates. Centres have non-executive advisory committees.

The Community Education Section is also responsible for relations with voluntary organisations in the field of adult education, including community associations, in some of which the Authority employs full-time wardens. All these bodies are autonomous of the Authority in policy-making.

The Institutions

1. Adult Education Centres
   - 6 full-time centres involving between 1,200 and 7,100 students.
   - 2 part-time centres in Dunmow and Burnham.

2. Colleges of Further and Higher Education
   - 3 colleges with a major commitment to adult education, ranging in size from 1,000-2,000 students. In Braintree and Loughton there are departments of adult education, and in Thurrock a half-time Co-ordinator for adult education is employed.

- 4 colleges with a minor commitment to adult education but where no specific department exists.

3. Youth and Adult Centres - 22 full-time establishments responsible both for the Youth Service and for Adult Education. Adult student numbers in these centres vary from 2,400 in Clacton to 200 in Epping, and there are some additional small youth centres who run occasional classes, largely for under-18 year olds.
- part-time centre at Tiptree.

4. Others

Community School - 1 Community School exists at Coggeshall, involving some 500 students. A full-time member of staff is responsible for adult education and youth work.

Community Centre - The William de Ferrers Centre at South Woodham Ferrers which opened in September 1982 has a full-time Community Principal responsible to the governing body of the Complex for Adult Education and Youth Work.

Community Association - Debden Community Association in Loughton has a full-time warden employed by the Authority and organises an adult education programme involving over 2,000 students each year. A number of other Associations have, in the past, provided classes through the County's block fee regulations, but these numbers have dwindled in recent years.

Community and Voluntary Organisations - Block fee classes are provided for voluntary organisations, including Community Associations, in areas where there is no County Centre available to make provision.

Premises

The Adult Education Centres at Brentwood, Harlow, Colchester and Grays have access to independent premises for adult education purposes. These range from Brentwood with two buildings including some 20 teaching spaces

and office accommodation to Harlow with four teaching spaces and limited office space. The other Adult Education Centres have office accommodation based on school sites and rely upon school premises or hired independent premises for all their teaching activities. Only in Grays and Brentwood is more than half the teaching undertaken in independent premises. The absence of day-time accommodation in many Areas has resulted in a reduced programme of provision for the disadvantaged, pensioners, housewives and the unemployed. This is particularly true in Chelmsford, Southend and Basildon.

The majority of the Youth and Adult Centres have access to some limited independent accommodation, commonly based on school sites, sometimes in the form of OFE lounges or purpose built Youth Centres. A few centres have more extensive provision, notably at Clacton and Harwich.

Curriculum

In the past the programme of most Centres was based on courses which had recruited well in previous years, modified by the special interests of particular staff. Since 1970, however, there has been growing recognition that this 'demand-led' service does not reach those with the greatest educational needs, many of whom have benefited little from education in the past and have unhappy memories of school, possibly many years ago. As a result efforts have been made to encourage participation by particular groups, or in fields where there was evidence of need but no conspicuous 'demand'. Such areas include, among others, adult literacy, work with the handicapped or unemployed, 'Return to Study' courses for women, training of volunteers, pre-retirement and parent courses. Such courses are frequently substantially more expensive in staff time than 'traditional' courses and they do not usually generate significant fee income, either because students are unable to pay normal fees or because they are not initially highly motivated towards education. Such courses usually require day time accommodation, and where this is not available, it is normally impractical to mount them. These factors have a major influence in preventing a development of these kinds of education, and the result is that the curriculum provided in Essex has a 'traditional' emphasis in the kinds of courses offered and the kinds of student attracted.

All classifications of courses must be tentative, and divisions into 'vocational' and 'non-vocational', or 'academic' and 'recreational', which apply to students' motives rather than courses, are inappropriate. However, it is possible to indicate broad groupings of courses. The

table below shows categories of courses with the proportion of courses in each category at September 1982 (all County establishments included).

Creative/Aesthetic	31%
Health/Physical	23%
Intellectual/Scientific/Technical	18%
Languages	12%
Vocational (mainly office skills)	8%
Civic/Role (volunteer training, parents courses, pre-retirement)	4%
Basic (Literacy, Numeracy, Handicapped)	3%

Times of courses

Courses in Community Education establishments in Autumn term can be divided as follows:

Day	28%
Evening	72%

Proportion of examination courses: 'O' and 'A' level

Approximately 13% of courses were designed to lead to an external examination, including 7% of GCE 'O' level and 2% of 'A' level.

Length of courses

The 'normal' course runs for 26 weeks, but centres are encouraged to be flexible in planning courses to suit the needs of subject and students.

The planned lengths of courses were as follows:

Long courses (over 26 weeks)	22%
Normal courses (26 weeks)	62%
Technical courses	12%
Short courses (under 6 weeks)	4%

Centres providing classes - student enrolments: 1977 - 1982

Totals (of 37 centres) -	1977	42,338
	1978	54,961
	1979	54,519
	1980	52,878
	1981	45,854
	1982	46,860

Finance of the service in Essex 1982-83 (October 1981) estimates

Expenditure

Adult education -

	£
Salaries and wages	
- Teaching staff	1,338,500
- Teaching support staff	188,500
- Caretakers, cleaners and other manual staff	36,300
- National insurance and superannuation	125,300
- Employees' other expenses	1,750
Premises	73,500
Supplies and services	81,500
Transport	15,800
Establishment expenses	53,500
Debt charges	39,000
	1,953,650

Income	£
Fees and charges	1,091,000
Miscellaneous income	11,400

Staffing (fte = full-time equivalent)

Number of staff:

- Lecturers/Instructors	- whole time	10
	- part-time (fte)	174
	Total	184
- Others	- whole time	24
	- part-time (fte)	55
	Total	79

McNair's description clearly shows that local education authorities support other organisations which may be concerned with educational advice, guidance, and counselling for adults,[(a)(b)(c)] the voluntary field,[(a)(b)] or the elderly. Coleman's (1982) remarks illustrate this point: 'The main

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(a) See also: Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education, Continuing Education; from Policies to Practice, Leicester, ACACE, 1982.

(b) See also: Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education, Adults; Their Educational Experience and Needs, Leicester, ACACE, 1982

(c) See also: Mitchell, H., A Recurrent Education Framework; the Newcastle-upon-Tyne Mode, Discussion Paper 9, Association for Recurrent Education, January 1982.

concern and ultimate responsibility for the majority of pre-retirement provision rests firmly with the adult education sector. It must be remembered that not all adult education is provided by local education authorities. The contributions of voluntary organisations like the Workers' Educational Association and the Women's Institutes are very substantial. However, LEAs have the major responsibility in that they may both offer financial and other forms of support to voluntary organisations and also themselves provide a system of local adult education with senior officers to encourage and monitor the work and maintain standards'.[1] Further, his figures show that over half of adult education courses are concerned with creative/aesthetic and health and physical education.

With this information we may now return to Mee and Wiltshire and to other research for further details of local authority activities within the local area.

2.3 Mee and Wiltshire and other recent research

Mee and Wiltshire's[2] terms of reference were 'to describe, analyse and classify organisational and institutional patterns, to relate these to the growing body of organisational theory and to make some appraisal of their various virtues and defects'. They found that generalisation was apt to be very misleading; atmosphere and activity were as varied as the institutional and administrative provision. Their sources of information were many and varied. LEAs provided details of their administrative structures, questionnaires were sent to principals and heads of centres for appropriate information, 160 interviews were conducted in twenty-six different authorities, diaries of one week's activity in November were scanned, and published programmes of institutions in thirty-six authorities responsible for thirty-four thousand separate courses of study were referred to. Clearly, all this evidence was uniquely comprehensive and the picture which Mee and Wiltshire provide of the state of play between 1974 and 1977 is not only valuable as a historical document but could be the basis of any longitudinal study. Their main conclusions, given the importance of their work, are worth noting. These are that:

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1. Coleman, A., Preparation for Retirement in England and Wales; a Research Report, National Institute of Adult Education, Leicester, 1982.

2. Mee, G. and Wiltshire, A., Structure and Performance in Adult Education, London, Longman, 1978

- the administrative form selected by a local authority has a bearing on the character and balance of its adult education service;
- the 'specialist' adult education institutions with full-time staff and resources at their disposal and departments of adult education in colleges of further education were the most likely institutions to display innovative enterprise; (a)
- the newer urban community education centres were likely to be innovative in the area of 'disadvantaged' provision;
- the older form of semi-rural and suburban community college tended to supply a conventional programme;
- the 'professional' adult educators emphasised continuing education in which opportunity was to be kept open, compensation engineered for the excluded, and conceptual and critical values encouraged. Spare-time heads and principals were more concerned with the satisfying use of leisure through arts and crafts;
- craft and aesthetic skills (personal/household care and leisure-time enjoyment) comprised over half the total programme and showed a remarkable uniformity across all types of institution;
- physical recreation and languages were less consistently distributed but were part of the 'core curriculum'.

Mee and Wiltshire found that although local authorities had virtually unlimited freedom in shaping their policies for adult education and organisers could exercise a good deal of choice, a 'core curriculum' emerged. 'They can in theory teach what they like, yet three-quarters of their work is basically similar. There seems to be some sort of national consensus ..... yet ..... it is difficult to see how it operates'. [1, (b)]

Daines et al (1982) [2] have replicated a study of the adult student population in the same area of South-East Derbyshire that was carried out

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(a) Nearly the same point is made by Udell, D.S., Community Education; Program or Process; a Survey of Selected Community Schools throughout the United States, Research Reports on Educational Administration, Vol.VIII, No.2, Arizona State University, 1978. (See also Udell's doctoral dissertation on the same subject, Arizona State University, 1977.)

1. Mee, A. and Wiltshire, H., 1978.

(b) See a percipient review by Stuart Marriott, pp. 183-190, in Studies in Adult Education, Vol. 10, NIAE.

2. Daines, J., Elsey, B., Gibbs, M., Changes in Student Participation in Adult Education in a Selected Area of Derbyshire, Nottingham, Department of Adult Education, University of Nottingham, 1982.

in 1976. This study illustrates some of the trends in local provision. Their main conclusions were that:

- between 1976 and 1981, fees rose 240 per cent, whereas the retail price index rose 87 per cent;
- class open-times had been reduced, some centres had been closed;
- higher fees were charged to affiliated societies;
- the cessation of payment of tutors' travelling expenses made recruitment of tutors more difficult;
- there was a movement away from traditional topics towards newer ventures such as family learning activities, residential study weekends, day schools, and basic education provision through the sponsorship of the Manpower Services Commission.

The methodology of their survey was primarily a questionnaire to students. This is of some importance because the third report of the Adult Literacy Resource Agency suggested a substantial number of illiterate or semi-literate students in the Derbyshire County area (about 1500). Thus we would expect the questionnaire responses to be skewed, perhaps, rather more than the authors suggest when they write, 'in general terms it is reasonable to suppose that the response to the surveys was skewed towards the higher level educational and socio-economic groups in the adult population'. Bearing in mind the authors' comment, in detail they found that:

- student numbers had decreased by 28% between 1976 and 1981;
- the overall percentage of males decreased by 3% to 25% in 1981;
- the number of young women under 18 years of age had increased;
- mean age of students fell from 42.7 years in 1976 to 38.0 years in 1981;
- the greatest loss of students was in the 55+ age group, their proportionate share falling from 27% to 19%;
- in 1981:
  44% of all students were in full-time employment;
  19% of all students were housewives under 60 years of age;
  24% of all students were part-time workers;
- the largest loss in actual numbers of students was of housewives;
- the socio-economic status of adult education students altered as follows:

Socio-economic class		% 1976	% 1981
Non-manual	A/B	46	57
	C 1	15	19
Manual	C 2	26	16
	D/E	13	8

- the percentage of students enrolling for the first time dropped from 38% in 1976 to 34% in 1981;
- 45% of the total sample in 1976 (43% in 1981) learned about the class from a prospectus or brochure;
- there were no marked changes in the balance of day-time and evening class provision.

Daines et al suggest that those who have fallen away from attending adult education had relatively less disposable income for consuming a service that had rapidly increased its fees. (a)

We have emphasised that local education authorities attempt, as far as financial circumstances will allow, to meet the demands of various groups living or working in their areas. In the area studied by Daines et al, there was a considerable effort to help adult literacy students; the research from a sample of 265 students was not published but Elsey, B. [1] has provided the results to us which we summarise below:

- mean age of all respondents was 31.5 years;
- 58% were aged 18 to 34 years;
- 54% were male;
- 46% were married;
- 53% travelled in own car or as passenger in another's car;
- 28% walked to their centre;
- 43% were in full-time employment;
- 77% studied out of interest but 39% were doing so to assist on present job or find new job (some registered more than one motive);
- 83% left school at 14 years of age (11%), 15 years (30%) or 16 years(43%);
- 85% attended class in the evenings;
- 74% attended only one class;

(a) Readers wishing to have latest estimates may like to consult annual review of fees enquiry conducted by the NIAE (usually available during the Spring of each year and published in Adult Education in March edition). See Appendix A for 1982 review of fees.

1. Elsey, B., Nottingham University Department of Adult Education.

- 37% attended class for one year, a further 24% had attended for two years;
- 23% were members of sporting clubs;
- 23% heard of the facility from newspapers;
  19% heard of the facility from a brochure/prospectus;
  19% heard of the facility from other advertising media;
  18% heard of the facility at work/school;
  17% heard of the facility from a member/former member;
- the largest percentage of males were in full-time employment (60%);
- the largest percentage of females were housewives (28%).

It is clear, therefore, from Mee and Wiltshire and from Daines et al and from Elsey, that (within financial constraints) a local education authority will and does respond to the demands of a local community within its administrative area. It seems reasonable to suggest that if this is the case for the whole administrative area, then it is probably true of local areas within the administrative area. Local areas are of course served by adult education centres, community centres and voluntary bodies and by local branches of regional or national organisations. We shall deal with the 'community' labelled aspects of local provision in some detail. Because 'community' notions have attracted much attention from researchers, it is inevitable that we have rather more to report about such enterprises than we have about the normal provision. This may imply that adult education centres have less importance in the system than is the case[(a)] but we are faced with the difficulty that there has been little research on the activities of particular centres as such. There has been research on recruitment to and participation in courses offered by adult centres and these we have described in other volumes of our Review. But series of actual studies of the total operation of particular centres are not available, because the reports of HM Inspectors and of local authority advisers or inspectors who continually monitor such centres have been, to date, confidential.

(a) See the reports of the Advisory Committee on the Development of Local Educational Networks in the Netherlands (Commissie Beuordering Plaatselijke Educatieve Netwerken); the Fifth Advisory Report, 1979, Educational Networks in Construction, recommends the setting up of more educational centres, under the auspices of the municipal authorities, which are very similar to those in England and Wales.

3.0 THE NOTIONS OF 'COMMUNITY' EDUCATION

Community, it is said, can be an 'aerosol' word sprayed on to almost any institution to revitalise it. A major problem is the vagueness of terms and types[1,2,3,4,5] which may lead many to dismiss it as little more than a fashionable gimmick. But there are important core objectives underlying the otherwise unsatisfactory debate and for this reason we believe that the research on this topic should not be overlooked.

Underlying the notion of community are two broad sets of social or sociological assumptions which are the more powerful because they are often unconsciously held and felt rather than articulated.

The first, which underlies the community school or college concept, reaches back to Goldsmith's schoolmaster in 'The Deserted Village' and, more consciously, to William Morris. It is derived from the sociology of Durkheim and his successors with its assumption of a polarity between 'community' and 'society' (or 'bureaucracy'); the one warm, caring, human and creative: the other cold, bureaucratic, restrictive, domineering. 'Society' is responsible for the present mass society, the loneliness and anomie of the individual. Only a return to 'community' will save society from such ills. The community college or school movement is often based on such sociological thought.[6,7,8]

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1. Hutchinson, E., 'Participation in the Leicestershire Community Colleges', in Studies in Adult Education, Vol. 6, No. 2, October 1974, NIAE.
2. Fletcher, C., 'Developments in Community Education; a current account', in Issues in Community Education, Falmer Press, Brighton, 1980.
3. Stock, A.K., 'Community Colleges in the United Kingdom', in International Review of Education, Special Number Life-long Education and Learning Strategies, Vol.XX, No.4, 1974, UNESCO Institute for Education, Hamburg.
4. See Russell Report, Adult Education; a Plan for Development, London, HMSO, 1973.
5. See Alexander Report, Adult Education; the Challenge of Change, London, HMSO, 1975.
6. See Gusfield, J.R., Community - a Critical Response, Oxford, Basil Blackwell, 1975.
7. See Batten, T.R., The Human Factor in Community Work, London, Oxford University Press, 1965.
8. See Elsdon, K.T. (Ed.), Papers of Department of Education Short Course N 787: Planning and Cooperation to Meet the Adult Education and Community Provision Needs of an Area, 1973. These are held in NIAE's library and may be read there.

But there is also a second set of assumptions which have developed from an examination of practice in the reality of urban and industrial societies. Simple polarities are rejected. Complex patterns of varied interest communities are identified (rather than geographically based ones) from which only the most immediate neighbourhood groupings and remote villages in marginal zones could be excepted. Such perceptions point towards an organisation of services based on separate and more highly developed professional skills cooperating closely but equally in a network rather than in a unitary organisation controlled by one partner. The following text implies that only the first set of assumptions seems to have percolated into the system.

3.1 Definitions of community and theories

3.1.1 A general theory

Fletcher[1] has propounded a theory of community education which states as premises the following:

- the community has its needs and common causes and is the maker of its own culture which is an active, shared component of life;
- educational resources are to be dedicated to the articulation of needs and common causes; it means joining ideas and analyses and being disposed to seek for needs rather than wait for demands; [2]
- education is an activity in which we alternate between the roles of student, teacher and person. This implies trust, cooperation, joint achievement, a mature and equal relationship. [3]

From these premises, Fletcher argues that:

- the educational centre should serve both as a place that people can visit in order to make use of resources and as a place from which educationists leave in order to establish what resources are required and where they are needed most;
- control is democratic; teacher and student are equal;
- there is social action, innovation and reaction and response;

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1. Fletcher, C., 'The theory of community education and its relation to adult education', in Thompson, J.L. (Ed.), Adult Education for a Change, Hutchinson, London, 1980.

2. See also Keeble, R.W.J., Community and Education, National Youth Bureau, 1981.

3. See also Mills, V., 'Defining adult and community education', in Scottish Journal of Adult Education, Vol. 4, No. 3, Autumn 1979.

- the local community learns how to find out and where to find out about what has happened;
- people learn theory and skills to improve their own circumstances.

Thus follows a definition of community education, viz: community education is a process of commitment to the education and leisure of all ages through local participation in setting priorities, sharing resources and the study of circumstances. The community and its educational provisions qualify and enhance each other.

Fletcher avers, therefore, that community education does not derive from an adult educational theory but from an educational theory which also applies to adult education (and) equally applies to secondary education and to the voluntary sector. It may be that older children in secondary schools are best treated as young adults but in normal circumstances the student population in secondary schools is not one of voluntary students as is the case in the adult world.

But Fletcher's definition clearly describes the stance of the 'community' school of thought: namely that community education is a process in which no programme is ultimately defensible and in which critical democratic response is the characterising feature. The theory clearly rejects the concept of a local service based solely on institutions run for the convenience of the teaching staff. But did such institutions ever exist?

3.1.2 Local, democratic, life-long learning emphasis

Mills, summarising the work of Wiltshire ('The Spirit and the Form', 1976), suggested a pragmatic definition of community education, viz:

- there should be an emphasis on and no attempt to denigrate the immediate culture and language of the vicinity in which the education is taking place;
- it should be democratic;
- it should emphasise life-long learning; whatever people's ages they should be encouraged to engage in educational activities.[1]

3.1.3 A national purpose, locally based view

Jackson (1970) explicitly extends the definitions given above by suggesting that one purpose of community education is .... 'to integrate these communities into the life of the nation and to enable them to contribute

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1. Mills, V., 'Defining adult and community education', in Scottish Journal of Adult Education, Vol. 4, No. 3, Autumn 1979.

fully to national progress'. The emphasis is to build up from local levels for he suggests that his experience in Liverpool showed that:

- 'the best results are not produced by large-scale national administrative arrangements, nor by committees. Resources need to be co-ordinated on a particular area of need ..... for example ..... providing a comprehensive adult education service for inner areas of a conurbation or new town'. [1]

3.1.4 The 'informal' or 'non-formal' emphasis

Others indicate that community education is non-formal, that in its very variety it is able to exhibit a more immediate response to specific and localised needs. True community is a relationship that comprehends and values diversity by providing a rich climate for communication. Non-formal education is supposed to eschew subject divisions which are alleged to be a feature of formal education, and to have a subject matter which arises from community interests. [2] This seems to suggest that a false dichotomy exists between formal and non-formal education and seems to support our contention that a system of recurrent or life-long or continuing education operating at local level will comprehend all forms of educational enterprise including community education.

3.1.5 The criterion of serving particular groups by social class or by disadvantage

Often community education is seen as a means of attracting the working class to adult education. This may well be the case, but the evidence to date suggests that more working class people join adult education through such projects as basic adult education programmes, literacy, numeracy and basic social skills, and so-called 'traditional' classes, than through unfocussed community projects. Jackson, K. and Keddie, N., in their contributions to Adult Education for a Change, argue that this is because of the present social structure of the initial education system and because of the lack of resources allocated to adult education. It is clear that the tenets of community education are based upon some set of value

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1. Jackson, K., 'Adult education and community development', in Studies in Adult Education, Vol. 2, 1970, NIAE.

2. Radcliffe, D., 'Community values and non-formal education', in Literacy Work, Vol. 7, No. 1, Spring 1978.

assumptions and it is desirable that these should be made explicit and explored. [1,2,3]

Some argue for the development and strengthening of a working class community, using it as a means of radically reforming society. Others recognise the importance of working class culture without stating that education must be limited to that culture or that it is superior. Educators, however, must be aware of that culture, its weaknesses, its strengths and its insights. In such knowledge, and in contact with the everyday lives of people, can be found the source of the problems, the contradictions, which socially-committed educators seek to resolve. It also provides them with the material which helps to involve the people themselves in that educational process. It is not, therefore, an argument as some suggest for keeping people within that culture but for encouraging its potential for radical change. [4,5,6] Community education is seen therefore as sustaining the dynamic of community action and as one of the innovative features of an adult education system. [7,8] It stands, so it is said, in stark contrast to a traditional middle-class adult education system. But though wishing to encourage working class activists, Lovett argues that there is a need to engage the participants in relevant

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1. Lawson, K.H., 'Community education; a critical assessment', in Adult Education, Vol. 50, No. 3, May 1977, NIAE.

2. See also, Plant, R., Community and Ideology, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1974.

3. See also, Thomason, G.F., The Professional Approach to Community Work, Sands, London, 1969.

4. Lovett, T., 'The challenge of community education in social and political change', in Covergence, Vol. 11, No. 1, 1978.

5. Lovett, T., Adult Education and Community Action - the Northern Ireland Experience in Community Education, 1977, edited by Fletcher, C., Department of Education, University of Nottingham, 1978.

6. Hoare, Q. and Smith, E. (Eds. and trans.), Selections from the Prison Notebooks of Antonio Gramsci, Lawrence and Wishart, London, 1973.

7. See Hall, B., 'Continuity in adult education and political struggle', in Convergence, Vol. 11, No. 1, 1978, for supportive argument.

8. Forbes, J., 'Community education and life-long education', in Scottish Journal of Adult Education, Vol. 5, No. 3, Autumn 1981.

education of a high standard which makes no concessions to informal community discussion methods or 'the learning through doing approach'. Working class activists are to be given the chance to come to terms with a subject skill or field of knowledge so that they understand its internal rules and become experts as far as possible. Thus community action has an important role to play and may be an important part of community education but this in turn is only a part of a diversified local service of adult education. [1,2,3]

3.1.6 The objective of creating or reinforcing a local community through educational intervention

Henry Morris of Cambridgeshire, who was responsible for the first village college, opened in Sawston in 1930, argued that the aim was to revive rural life at a time of general agricultural depression. Village Colleges were to serve as community centres, as the cultural and leisure focus for a village and its neighbourhood to counteract the pull of the city. [4,5,6] The focus was on the geographical area.

3.1.7 The interventionist, social activist and action researcher

But Henry Morris was ambivalent about being solely concerned with the geographical area; he also sought out interest groups. There are interventionists who see adult educators as having a role to intervene, to animate and to create through action research, communities of interest groups. Their get up and go, search and seek stance is perhaps their contribution to adult education.

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1. Marshall, R.P., The Role of Adult Education in Human Development in the Environment of a New Town, M.Ed., University of Manchester, 1975, unpublished.
2. Lovett, T., 'Adult education and community action', in Thompson, J., Adult Education for a Change, Hutchinson, 1980.
3. See also, McConnell, C., 'The community education approach to political education', in Scottish Journal of Adult Education, Vol. 4, No. 4, Spring, 1980.
4. Poster, C., The School and Community, London, MacMillan, 1971.
5. Ree, H., Educator Extraordinary; the Life and Achievements of Henry Morris, London, Longmans, 1973.
6. Smith, G. and T., Community Schools in England and Wales - a Review, Inspectorate Bulletin, Occasional Paper 3, Community Schools, Scottish Education Department, Edinburgh, 1973.

Hiemstra sees community education as a means of activating a practice of life-long education. [1] Leaper argues that a definition of community education arises out of the practice of community action. [2] Henderson avers that definitional confusion arises when the target population of the project is not identified. [3] Cowley suggests that although the notion of community is complex, it describes the activist role of the adult educator in the field, [4] and Loney takes the same view. [5] Jeffrey and Maginn report the setting up of a cooperative which was not only a way of obtaining cheaper food 'but also of increasing our individual ability to deal with circumstances that require a variety of skills and degrees of judgment'. [6,7]

The interventionist stance may be contrasted to a view that if there is a demand, then it will be met. A characteristic of interventionist language is the use of the word 'need'.

3.1.8 Community education as an extension of adult education?

Kirkwood (1976 and 1978) [8,9] found Lawson's attempt to 'winkle out the underlying ideology of community education' a curiously uncritical - or else positively conservative-stance with regard to the ideology of

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1. Hiemstra, R., 'Community adult education in life-long learning', in Journal of Research and Development in Education, No.7, Summer 1974.
2. Leaper, R., Community Work, National Council of Social Service, 1968.
3. Henderson, P.L., Variant Perceptions of a Community Development Project in a Northern Town, unpublished M.Ed. thesis, University of Manchester, April 1977.
4. Cowley, J. et al (Eds.), Community or Class Struggle, Stage 1, 1977.
5. Loney, M., 'The British community development projects; questioning the State', in Community Development Journal; an International Forum, Vol. 16, No. 1, January 1981.
6. Jeffrey, J. and Maginn, C., Who Needs Literacy Provision?, London, MacMillan Education Ltd., 1979.
7. See also, Armstrong, R. and Davies, C.T., 'Community action; pressure groups and education', in Adult Education, Vol. 50, No. 3, September 1977.
8. Kirkwood, C., 'Community work and adult education in Staveley", M.Sc. Dissertation, Edinburgh University, 1976 (unpublished).
9. Kirkwood, C., 'Adult education and the concept of community', in Adult Education, Vol. 51, No. 3, September 1978.

traditional adult education. Lawson, writes Kirkwood, contrasts the alleged practical instrumentalism of community education with 'more traditional conceptions of education as a worthwhile thing for its own sake or at least directed to more distant and more nebulous goals', and again, later, 'the more traditional role of general cultural diffusion and personal development through studies on a broad perspective'. This, argues Kirkwood, is incredibly vague. Traditional adult education is here implicitly posed as an abstract essence to be defended. What is this essence? What is this valuable culture that is to be diffused? Who makes it? For whom is it important? He avers that traditional adult education is put up there on a pedestal and that it concentrates on people's needs (identified by professionals) rather than on people's interests, lives and situations. This implies the discovery and pursuit of interests and concerns. He argues that the term 'community' is often deployed to unite people of different statuses and classes, and to conceal conflicts of interest. It may claim to break down divisions - for example those of race, class or religion - but in reality it does the opposite. Its unity is skin-deep, a plaster for existing stratifications, providing an umbrella under which the lion lies down with the lamb. Used in this sense the word 'community' is a reactionary concept. He suggests rather that the notion community should comprehend such descriptive terms as creativity, cooperative use and control of resources, responsibility, voluntarism and dialogue. Further, he seems to suggest a pattern of adult education services in which community education may play a role and its practical experiences be taken into account in formulating a general theory of adult education.

3.1.9 Heterogeneity as a feature of the local community

So far we have tended to use the singular word 'community'; Jackson[1] points out how misleading this may be. Quoting from Raymond Pahl's Patterns of Urban Life (1970), he cites examples of communities, such as owner-occupiers with a major interest in keeping up the market value of the neighbourhood, of communities formed 'as defence against an external threat' (against airports, motorways etc.) and communities of 'common deprivation' such as those in inner city areas. In every case

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1. Jackson, K., 'Some fallacies in community education and their consequences in working class areas', in Fletcher, C., and Thompson, N., (Eds.), Issues in Community Education, The Falmer Press, Brighton, 1980.

'community' describes a form of solidarity between people depending first on their political and economic situation and only secondly on living in the same place. Man is to be viewed as both an individual and as a gregarious animal needing opportunities to relate to each other.[1]

The burden of all the above argument suggests to us that the term 'local community' in practice comprehends a local adult system offering a variety of programmes to a variety of communities made up of individuals who may themselves belong to several communities.(a) Some local communities may be part of a national community of interests; for example the BBC Radio Three 'community' is a national one which also includes those interested in serious local music performances, appreciation courses and so on.

We shall illustrate this variety of educational enterprise, where supported by research, critical description of experience or a spirit of enquiry, in the following chapters.

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1. Stewart, B., 'A community adult education service', in Adult Education, Vol. 49, No. 1, July 1976.

(a) Though no one seems to have mentioned it so far, we can envisage in this imperfect world an individual who may belong to two 'communities' whose goals are antagonistic. He or she may wish to subscribe to adult education as a means of reconciling such conflicts through greater understanding and knowledge.

4.0 ADULT EDUCATION IN THE LOCAL COMMUNITY - PROJECTS

By far the greatest proportion of adult education at local level is that which has evolved over a long period of time and continues to extend its frontiers. Some of these so-called 'traditional' centres of activity have been re-labelled as 'community' centres but others which retain their old names have become involved in innovative programmes. In some cases, renaming some of the institutions has led to a new focus with beneficial results; in other cases only the letter heading has changed. But in nearly all cases innovation, change, and the strengthening of existing provision have depended on the availability of financial and administrative resources. Unfortunately there has been a tendency for educational innovation to be described purely as educational inputs and outcomes without due consideration being given to the allocation of economic and administrative resources. Consequently, the performance of new projects with new names which attracted new financial support has been contrasted somewhat unfairly with the 'traditional' provision which has struggled along on existing resources. We trust that the account of projects below will not mislead the reader. Our concern must be for local provision and activity as a whole.

4.1 Local projects in the United Kingdom (a)

4.1.1 Attempts to increase working class participation

The Southampton experiment

With a research grant from the Department of Education and Science, the extra-mural department of the University of Southampton mounted a project which would amongst other objectives help to answer the question: how can education for adults be made more accessible to those who currently play no part in existing adult education services?

The method chosen was action research, which is the careful monitoring and recording of activities as the scheme develops. The initial phase was one of getting to know and gaining the confidence of local people. A publicity campaign was started to include:

(a) Please see our volume on 'The Unemployed' for community projects designed with the problems of the unemployed specifically in mind. Also see The Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education report Education for Unemployed Adults, ACACE, 1982.

- information about existing provision;
- a skill and interest matching service to enable people with similar skills and interests to contact each other;
- information about the provision of non-formal discussion groups which had crèches attached.

The research included:

- a questionnaire asking people what they would like to see improved in the council estate area in which they lived;
- case studies of various aspects of the project;
- a survey of the residents' participation in adult education;
- a survey of part-time tutors' attitudes and assumptions about the local adult education service;
- an evaluation of the discussion groups initiated by the project;
- a series of semi-structured interviews with professional adult educators with responsibilities in the area;
- a series of interviews with participants in the project's activities;
- an analysis of existing data and services related to the area.

The local area under discussion consisted of a large 'over-spill' council estate with a high proportion of young families and elderly people. Though not classifiable as a 'deprived' area, poor transport facilities and the social and physical isolation of many residents led to a general feeling of powerlessness among residents on the estate.

During the course of the earlier stages of the project case studies of seven different types of action were elicited. These were:

- a single parent family group;
- an indirect involvement with literacy provision;
- a community magazine;
- discussion groups for women;
- a holiday play scheme;
- work with unemployed young people;
- field workers' meetings.

The knowledgeable reader will undoubtedly reflect that many adult education centres include such activities in their programmes. Thus the characteristic of their project was to actively extend to a locality aspects of adult education which existed in other areas. The conclusions drawn from experience in this part of the scheme were that:

- full-time workers were essential to maintain the continuity of groups;

- group work built up individuals' confidence so that
  - some wanted to take part in more demanding work and enrolled in certification classes;
  - some joined existing groups on the estate;
  - some initiated new activities.

Another case study describes the establishment of a cooperative 'Focus 230' which was to acquire a building as a base for a variety of activities. This was also intended as a means of encouraging local people to exercise neighbourhood control.

In their evaluation of the project, the authors [1] found that:

- participants in the estate project were younger than non-participants (50% were under 25 years of age compared to 15%);
- participants were more likely to be male (9% more males than females);
- participants lived longer in the neighbourhood than non-participants;
- participants were more likely to be in full-time employment (70% compared with 44% of non-participants);
- participants were less likely to have children (50% were childless compared to 33% of non-participants);
- participants were likely to be of a higher socio-economic status as measured by car-ownership and level of skill required in their jobs;
- nearly 60% of non-participant respondents had no wish to attend adult classes; the remainder recorded reasons for not taking part, such as: difficulty in finding baby-sitters (29%), cost of fees (17%), problems of shift work (21%), and lack of information about courses (about 20%);
- when offered short range options not normally associated with adult education, the choices of non-participants were overwhelmingly for weekend camps and visits to places of interest;
- the most common source of information about classes was the work place (according to participant respondents);
- classes attended were dominated by those concerned with job or possible job related adult education;
- participants were more likely to have left school later, have educational qualifications and have an enhanced self-concept from successful previous educational experience;
- neither group perceived their council estate as having an alienating environment though both groups had criticisms to make of existing facilities.

1. Fordham, P., Poulton, G., Randle, L., Learning Networks in Adult Education, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1979.

From the survey of part-time tutors, the authors found that:

- tutors were well qualified academically with an average of six years' experience in adult teaching;
- a relatively high proportion of tutors taught in initial education establishments and taught the same or related subjects in adult classes;
- tutors were generally positive in their attitudes to students;
- tutors generally welcomed further training both in skills and in subject specialisms;
- just under half the part-time tutors felt that:
  - communication between the principal of the further education centre and part-time tutors needed to be improved;
  - provision of materials for practical subjects needed to be improved;
  - the administrative burden on them should be reduced;
- 54% claimed a feeling of professional isolation;
- 73% favoured a practical demonstration followed by individual help as a teaching style;
- 70% preferred individual tutoring and demonstration to solve particular problems;
- there was little concern expressed about non-participants.

The semi-structured interviews with full-time professionals responsible for the area tended to confirm the impression of the adult education services on the council estate as 'rather traditional and geared to the wider Borough than the estate'. We believe that traditional means in this context a propensity to let students come to the centre in contrast to active steps to seek out students. The research report does not deal with the question of whether this is a matter of perception on the part of those responsible or is a necessary result of the form of organisation of adult education in the locality.

The overall findings were that:

- attempts to increase working-class participation in the kind of education we already provide are likely, at best, to have only a marginal success. A new type of education which might be described as 'non-formal' needs to be set up outside existing institutional structures and traditions;
- <u>non-formal methods succeeded in recruiting students whose initial motivation was not 'educational' in any deliberate sense</u>;

- the skill, experience and determination of the group leader or tutor is a major determinant of whether or not a group of such students comes to achieve systematic and sustained study;

- before organising such learning groups, the non-formal educator must first of all engage in and support the 'potential learning networks'. The tutor is an activist who can facilitate the development of group meetings;

- the tutor's first task is to gain a detailed knowledge of the locality and for this work and for continuing development he needs the assistance of a support group of local field workers. Church leaders, social, health and educational personnel may be appropriate contacts;

- existing adult education centres should be able to provide back-up for local initiatives and become local resource centres for information and the exchange of ideas and skills.

  The authors do not propose that adult education centres should be the centre from which primary initiatives are made. It could be that in their particular study area the financing of the centre, personality questions, political support or whatever, made it unlikely that such initiatives would appear. The problem is how far this recommendation applies universally; we shall show later in the text that this is a matter of controversy.

- outreach tutors need training which involves several professional traditions - adult education, community work and social work - for they have to initiate groups, act as tutors and as organisers;

- if a wider section of the population is to use adult education resources then adult education should be relevant to local needs, accessible in localities and free from ideological constraints. Adult educators should take an 'ecological stance' starting in neighbourhoods helping groups to develop the use of local resources and encouraging people to use their own environment as a basis for intellectual, social, psychological, cultural and political growth;

- all such initiatives will fail if people, by definition not yet convinced of the value of education, are required to pay high fees whilst still in the process of discovering its worth;

- local part-time training is necessary to recruit volunteer tutors;

- non-formal involvement should increase participants' self-concept and confidence to the point that non-formal programmes begin to

link with more traditional provision and augment total participation.

The above project is clearly a most interesting and illuminating mixture of local action, sometimes called community action, and research. But each style of research has its advantages and its restrictions. Action research ends with the action. Unfortunately, the effects of educational initiatives take time to emerge. It may be that the people in this neighbourhood have built upon these pilot schemes. We do not know. There was no financial provision for such a follow-up. Thus the book fully describing the above takes a modest, cautious stance about long-term effects.

The Liverpool experiment

A further example of such an initiative is that undertaken jointly by the Workers' Educational Association and the Educational Priority Area Project among working class communities during 1969 to 1972 in the Liverpool area. The development project was associated with case studies in one area.

The Educational Priority Area philosophy was aimed at underlining the role of the school as an agent for social change. It emphasised a need to replace what the researchers describe as a uniform competitive middle-class educational system with one they considered as being more attuned to the needs of working class communities. Adult education was to be a matter of fundamental remedial education for those who had not benefited from the initial education sector. The work was divided into three overlapping stages, viz: exploration and investigation, experiment and evaluation and consolidation. Initial community contacts were made through existing organisations such as the Shelter Neighbourhood Action Project and various community councils. Three project initiated exercises in adult education were attempted through an EPA school, an 'Adult Education Shop' and a house-to-house survey in one road. The latter experiment, which was costly, resulted in about 5% of the clientele of 850 adults becoming involved in further education, principally in domestic subjects. This was reported by the team as being a considerable achievement but they thought that there was a need for different approaches to take account of different problems, circumstances, interests and abilities. Therefore, they embarked on a new approach which they described as 'community adult education'. Four case studies describe the ways in which local residents took part in some form of practical social initiative. Further, a centre used as a general social meeting place and playgroup in a disused handicraft centre was converted into a community centre. They found it difficult to organise any systematic adult education but an outside expert did manage to run a six-week course

on general community problems and the role of the local community councils. From this, it is alleged, structured learning sessions developed outside the centre in informal settings with outsiders often acting as educators. The adult educator allocated to the scheme reported that his role had been largely that of a community worker.

In an attempt to help parents learn to help their children play, a summer play scheme was developed to give opportunities for children's creative play and to make use of, and develop further parents' skills and expertise. The scheme lasted four weeks with 90 children attending daily but not many parents took an active part in activities and some of the volunteers found unstructured play activities difficult to handle. Consequently, this was reported as being of 'limited success in community terms'.

The adult educator was able to assist the local community council by, for example, arranging debates about the state of education.

In the case of the Shelter Neighbourhood Action Project, the adult educator reported 'unfulfilled hope' as the project's overall objectives and priorities over-rode the educational needs of residents.

Group work was the basis of two of the schemes; but in one, the setting - a public house - was unsuitable, and in another, the group was too large for such a method. Nevertheless, in all four schemes the existing experience of the group was taken as the starting point for their educational work which was designed to meet the needs of the community and individual development.

Examples of culture, class and communication by use of concepts by teenagers from tape-recorded discussions are given. Educational work based on the approach of Freire (1972) is described which involved audience participation in game and role-playing aimed at heightening awareness and creating an increased sense of social consciousness. Generally it was found that this was a large and costly operation. The metaphor used, a darts game which simulated the social system and the inequalities therein, was too obscure for some of the audience. Thus the adult educator turned to local radio as a medium and a resource which would reflect back the social experience of local people in their own language. Groups of local residents participated in making some programmes and agreed to listen and discuss them with their tutor. Ambitious objectives were not met but a number of the eleven groups taking part continued to meet for other educational or community projects.

From his experience in this area the author concluded that a Community Adult Education Network should include:

- a network agent, aware of local activities and ready to translate them into an acceptable educational form;
- a resources agent capable of providing resources from his contacts with appropriate individuals and organisations;
- an educational guide - to advise groups and to provide access to more formal learning opportunities, and
- a teacher of subjects outside working class experience.

The conclusions from this experience were:

- the WEA branch needed to consider more openly the nature of adult education it should provide for the working class;
- there should be more cooperation between agencies;
- the universities' main role should be in research and training. [1,2]

Perhaps the most humbling thought that emerges from this account is that in certain conditions and local areas the role of the adult educator is restricted simply because he does not appear to actually produce anything. The local media staff on the other hand seemed to be quite successful, for they could share with the local community a process of working together and a product, a radio programme. It may well be that in local initiatives the adult educator may often only be appreciated if his educational output is clearly seen to be an essential part of the product; for example teaching the necessary carpentry skills to people engaged in building cooperatively their homes.

The Nottinghamshire experience

In 1970 the Nottinghamshire Education Committee supported a scheme to correct one effect of social deprivation, namely a child's inability to benefit satisfactorily from schooling because of his home environment. This was a scheme carried out in cooperation with the Social Services Department.

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1. Lovett, T., Adult Education, Community Development and the Working Class, London, Ward Lock Educational, 1975.

2. See also, Ashcroft, A. and Jackson, K., Adult Education in a Community Development Project. Interim Report of Research Project of University of Liverpool, Institute of Extension Studies, Social Studies Division, 1973.

The aim was a course in child care and management for mothers on a large council estate serving the local colliery. Contacts with the potential clientele were through a Social Service Department case worker who knew of homes where deprivation meant a lack of confidence, lack of knowledge of motherhood and housecraft, difficulties in marriage relationships, lack of intelligence and sometimes, but not always, a lack of money.

A group was formed as a social group, not a class, fees were waived and there were no enrolment forms or register. Many mothers were taken to meetings in the case worker's own car and a playgroup was set up for mothers in the school hall. Gradually a nucleus of regular attenders was established. Drawing on the experience of this scheme similar projects were established throughout the County area.

During the 1971 summer holidays a four-week cookery course was established.

Throughout the development of these projects the local authority professional staff carefully monitored progress. In their view the results were that:

- the basic aims of the course had been achieved to some degree, that is, the children appeared to be making more satisfactory progress at school and there were some encouraging effects on family life;
- other mothers, not in the 'deprived' category, asked for a similar course;
- it was not necessarily true that educational institutions were anathema to self-conscious mothers; many enjoyed a cookery course at an FE college some distance away;
- growing self-confidence enabled mothers to participate in planning group programmes;
- playgroups seemed to have a beneficial effect on both child and mother (a) and
- much was learnt about the need for cooperation between departments to start such a group and to keep it going. [1]

(a) See, Groombridge, J., 'Room for the children', in Adult Education, Vol. 48, No. 3.

1. Drysdale, D.H., 'A joint experiment to combat social deprivation', in Adult Education, Vol. 46, No. 2, July 1973.

There were two features of the above that merit emphasis, namely:

- that the local scheme was built on the existing close individual relationship between social worker and client and the knowledge of the existing local authority staff, and,
- local authority structures were capable of flexible responses or initiatives.

Indeed, it seems that local adult education requires a capacity for flexibility whatever the organisational form, for in 1971 the voluntary Workers' Educational Association was being called upon 'to recognise the need for new flexibility'. [1]

A playgroup experiment

One example of such flexibility is a realisation that, in order to attract adults to adult education, provision may be needed for their children. One local authority attached a playgroup to an evening centre located in a predominantly working class industrial area which had undergone housing re-development. Priority was given to single parent families. The organiser of this scheme argued that single parents increasingly joined the normal class provision and that shift workers were also attracted when the scheme was extended to day provision. [2]

The Reading experience

A further example of how a local authority may respond to a local problem is the Katesgrove House project in Reading. Set within a deprived local community, Katesgrove House was the centre for:

- home-making classes for disadvantaged mothers, including prisoners' wives,and elderly widowers;
- English classes for Asian women;
- a crèche for pre-school children, many of whom approaching school age were inarticulate;
- group discussions of common problems;
- individual informal advice.

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1. Jackson, K. and Lovett, T., Educational Priorities and the WEA; the case for reform, (EPA Project, Paddington Comprehensive School, Liverpool 17, pamphlet).

2. Bennett, E., 'An evening playgroup; report of an experiment', in Adult Education, Vol. 52, No. 4, 1979.

Katesgrove House was planned to meet local needs in a local way using local resources. Particular features were the use of resources from different statutory and voluntary bodies and willingness to cross traditional boundaries.[1] But of course such extensions of adult education at local level depend largely on the continued employment by local authorities of lively, imaginative, advisory and professional staff with a full-time commitment and resources.

A Liverpool-Vauxhall experiment

A scheme which sought to make adult education an integral part of a Community Development Project in Vauxhall, Liverpool, has been described by Yarnit. Early activities arose out of involvement with tenants' associations, a rent strike and a local election. But the scheme moved away from this early approach to encompass three continuing aims. These were:

- to provide day time courses for workers on paid release;
- to charge no fees;
- to provide favourable conditions for study with the personal and intellectual support of a tutor, and a route to higher education for those students who wished to join.

The scheme reached a clientele of 100 men and 80 women, all of whom were in the classes skilled, unskilled or partly skilled. 60% of men were in the unskilled socio-economic group. The intake included housewives, factory workers, hospital workers, clerical workers, young members of the black community and the unemployed. None had much more than the basic initial education.

The course 'Second Chance to Learn', emphasised an historical approach and aimed to stimulate critical consciousness whilst at the same time building up personal confidence.

Most of the students on 'Second Chance' attended during their holidays or rest days as most employers only conceded unpaid leave. According to Yarnit, the lack of proper release arrangements accounted for high rates of absenteeism and drop out by students. Estimates suggest that between 30% and 40% of students were lost in this way. Most trade unions appeared to have the same attitude to paid release as employers.

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1. Legge, A.J.W., 'Katesgrove House; a collective experiment in helping the disadvantaged', in Adult Education, Vol. 46, No. 6, March 1974.

The course depended on seminars and weekly personal tuition sessions which were regarded as the most effective means of ensuring continuing attendance. Assessing the course the author commented that:

- this more accessible form of adult education provided a link between working class activists and committed professionals;
- 'Second Chance' attempted to create a tradition of adult education in a community which had never experienced such a tradition;
- there was tension between providing education for the individual who wanted to go on to university and providing education for the collective advancement of the community whose aims and interests were based on their perception of their locality;
- those who left school at 16 years were the least able to obtain paid educational leave and thus the gap between those who received higher education and others tended to be increasing. [1]

This account illustrates the limits of local initiatives. Without some nationally arranged form of paid educational leave or grant aided leave from employment it is very doubtful if many employed people outside the professions will be able to take advantage of local educational opportunities arranged during working hours. However, the project closed in 1976 and in the view of the Director of Housing, who was one of the City Chief Officers involved, 'the life of the project has been far too short to make a sensible appraisal but I would recommend strongly that the organisation should continue'. In Mercer's (1977) careful and thoughtful follow-up study - a rare example of action research being completed - the educational element was significant and successful in the primary objective of establishing educational activities but the secondary objective of continuing after the life of the project was only partially realised. [2]

Taking into account the studies of Yarnit and of Mercer, it appears that though special projects of community education of short periods may well be fully based in the local community, they are not soundly integrated into the normal procedures and management styles of local government.

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1. Yarnit, M., 'Second chance to learn, Liverpool', in Thompson, J., (Ed.), in Adult Education for a Change, Hutchinson, London, 1980.

2. Mercer, P., The Home Office Experimental Community Development Project in Liverpool, M.Ed. thesis, University of Manchester, 1977, unpublished. (Appraisal of the project one year after its closure).

'The appropriate strategy for community education must inevitably be a synthesis between what the institution is capable of undertaking and what the community desires to be undertaken.' [1]

The Glasgow experiment

An interesting example of a result of the spirit of community education, namely the willingness to go into the community and discuss issues with them, has been given by Munro (1980). She describes the experience of an outreach educator in an area of multiple deprivation in Glasgow. Initially she was to discover the community's need for and response to a specific topic, adult literacy. The response of local people was for a variety of courses and learning groups, namely:

- basic literacy and numeracy;
- refresher English and arithmetic;
- 'O' level English and arithmetic;
- Open University short courses such as the 'Pre-school Child';
- Keep Fit for mothers and toddlers;
- parents' association in a new housing area.

In all these groups some sort of systematic learning was taking place and a network of local contacts had been set up for further educational development. [2]

4.1.2 Other attempts to widen the clientele

Another project which specially investigated community demand took place in 1979 in Scotland. [3] In order to reach adults in the age range 30 to 46 years who lived locally, questionnaires were given to all children aged six and seven years in primary schools in South Queensferry. 845 questionnaires were distributed and 285 were returned giving a 33.7% response rate. The question 'Do you believe that students in adult education should have a "say" in A to F' received affirmative answers as follows:

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1. R. Blackledge, former County Education Officer, Wiltshire; quotation from Poster, C., Community Education; its Development and Management, Heinemann Education, 1982, in Education, Vol. 160, No. 5, 20th July 1982, p.90.

2. Munro, H., 'The Maryhill Project - basic education in an urban area', in Scottish Journal of Adult Education, Vol. 5, No. 1, Autumn 1980.

3. Kent-Ballantyne, W.R., 'The Queensferry Project - responding to demand', in Scottish Journal of Adult Education, Vol. 4, No. 2, Spring 1979.

A -	the classes offered	83% (rounded figures)
B -	the fee structure	19%
C -	the length of course	24%
D -	the time of classes	52%
E -	the methods of publicity	19%
F -	students should have no say in the provision offered by the Authority	9%

In early June a public meeting was arranged to determine the adult education classes which would be offered in Queensferry that year. The group at the meeting was shown the previous programme of the centre which included subjects which could be regarded as primarily work-related and subjects which were primarily of individual and social interest and self-development. The group recommended keeping the previous year's programme but adding twelve interest areas in the non-work related area, such as Antiques, Painting in Oils and Yoga.

The group was again consulted in August and was informed about progress in setting up classes, enrolment figures, difficulties in recruiting tutors and so on.

At the end of the first week of classes there was an increase of 53% in the total number of students attending the centre compared to the same period in the previous year. The author considers that the increase would have been greater if tutors could have been found for two popular interest areas which were in the previous year's programme and if the group could have exercised the same choice about vocational classes. Apparently vocational classes were administered under Further Education regulations whilst all other classes were the responsibility of the Community Education Department.

A thought provoking conclusion arises from the fact that 95% of all attending lived in the catchment area of Queensferry whereas in previous years attendance rates of people living outside the town was higher. Is it possible that an emphasis on 'community' in the publicity suggests a note of exclusion to potential clients living elsewhere? The author suggests, therefore, that community education should be seen to be based in the neighbourhood that it serves, supported by a regional overview and support structure. Participation, experience demonstrates, is a more complex matter than some community education protagonists will allow.

Chadwick [1,2] reported a study on how museums may extend educational and recreational offers to their communities. 500 residents in each of three areas, Derby, Leicester and Nottingham, were contacted. Returned questionnaires were respectively in the order of 34%, 29% and 26%, and nearly a quarter of the returns were from the age group 51 to 65 years. Chadwick found that:

- museums needed to set well defined measurable objectives, particularly in regard to their contribution to community education;
- there was a clear demand for the use of museums as information centres in liaison with other community agencies;
- there was a demand for well-trained staff to act as guides and refer visitors to appropriate literature or reserve collections;
- there was a demand for more frequent changes of displays;
- museums were under-resourced.

The above study raises practical questions about institutions which often serve not only a local community but also a regional and national clientele. (a) Some museums or art galleries may have a particular work such as Grunewald's 'Retable d'Issenheim' in the Musée de Colmar and have an overriding responsibility to, as the guide book puts it, 'les visiteurs, venus des quatre coins de l'horizon'.

4.1.3 Project aimed at Asian immigrants

Some local community projects are focussed upon a specific sector of the population. Turner (1977) studied the provision of home tuition to Asian women immigrants in the West Yorkshire conurbation. The aims included defining the home tuition process and demonstrating the social relevance of this particular form of adult education. Most of the findings were derived from a census survey of tutors carried out in 1972-73. [3] The typical student receiving tuition was a married woman who had migrated

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1. Chadwick, A.F., The Role of the Museum and Art Gallery in Community Education, University of Nottingham/NIAE, Nottingham, 1980.

2. Chadwick, A.F., The Role of the Museum and Art Gallery in Community Education, Ph.D. thesis, Manchester University, 1976, unpublished in full but a shorter version published as footnote 1. above.

(a) See, Quarmby, J. A Public Library Service for Ethnic Minorities in Great Britain, London, Library Association, 1978.

3. Turner, D.M., A Study of the Home Tuition of Asian Women Immigrants in West Yorkshire, University of Liverpool, 1977.

from India or Pakistan at least a year previously. There were often children and babies present in her home when tuition took place. She tended to be better educated than the average woman in the Indian sub-continent but was not likely to have any experience of education in Britain. 82% of the students were housewives without any other occupation; the rest were employed in unskilled or semi-skilled jobs.

Over a third of the students had been influenced by their spouse to join the scheme. Half the students read printed matter in English, over two-thirds printed matter in their own language and over 90% watched television or listened to radio where the programmes were culturally determined by the traditions of the host country. (Since this survey, many Asian households use video-tape systems to watch Indian/Pakistani films at home. Patterns of leisure behaviour are said to have changed markedly).

The researchers were impressed with the degree of isolation of the immigrant housewife. Apparently the visiting home tutor was the sole major contact with a member of the host society.

Most tutors and organisers saw home tuition as a means of teaching English as a second language, helping immigrant students to settle into the host community and an opportunity for developing friendly relationships. In practice English cannot be taught unless it is within the ambience of friendly relations and in the context of a lingual contribution to solving the more general problems faced by immigrant students.

The researchers found that potential tutors were not sufficiently aware of the need to secure the cooperation of the student's family nor of the importance, relevance and role of home tuition for the family group both as receivers and as contrbutors to the learning processes. This perhaps illustrates one of the difficulties of selecting specific individuals for local community education action, namely that to serve or respond to individual needs the scheme may lose the element of supportive learning that comes from group tuition. Indeed, it could well be argued by adult educationists that an individual approach is only defensible at the beginning of any scheme when first contacts are made. Thereafter the group becomes the unit of tuition; in the above example, first, the family, and second, the individual students were encouraged to join classes. But this second stage may take years rather than months. Turner found in the case of Asian women a reluctance to go outside the home for tuition.

4.2 Local projects in other countries

'Atikokan was a vacuum. Situated on the edge of a wilderness preserve in Northwestern Ontario, Canada, it lay half way between the United States border and a large lake-head town of Thunder Bay'. In 1976 the community was cursed with unemployment as mines closed, so as a response an Adult Communications Workshop was set up which:

- used a questionnaire to evaluate local needs and facilities;
- formed groups to suggest ideas;
- consulted groups to select courses of action, and
- encouraged groups to implement their decisions.

The researcher claims that the groups identified three tasks as being the greatest obstacles to job finding, namely:

- resumé writing;
- applying for jobs;
- being interviewed for jobs.

He argues that the more formal system of education in Canada fails to identify personal experience as a valid educational resource. Through creating a local community forum, research centre and campaign headquarters, a participatory problem solving educational venture was successfully created.[1,2]

The necessity to 'go forth' actively is confirmed by the experience of Bailon (1977) who interviewed 25 year and older Mexican American residents in the urban area of Santa Barbara. First, the target population was canvassed to evaluate their educational needs, and to find out how far these were being met by present programmes. Second, there was a comparison between the existing services and the educational needs disclosed. Third, programmes would be changed to suit consumer demand. They found that over two-thirds of the population were unaware of present provision. As a result of this it was suggested that a community centre should be set up in the 'barrio' to attract and serve the local community. In the

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1. Kemp. T., 'Participation and community education', in Community Development Journal, Vol. 17, No. 1, 1982.

2. See also for a similar theme, Kindervatter, S., Non-formal Education as an Empowering Process with Case Studies from Indonesia and Thailand, University of Massachusetts, Ed. D., 1979 (unpublished).

researcher's view the centre from which the adult educators 'go forth' into the community should be within that geographical community. [1]

But some researchers argue that the traditional classroom (which we assume means traditional teaching methods and styles) is less effective than informal approaches. In the case of hardcore educationally disadvantaged, it was claimed that home instruction by paraprofessionals working from learning centres was 2.5 times more effective, measured by gain in student reading performance. We are not convinced that such precise measurements of one skill necessarily support the argument for 'outreach' provision. Indeed, the experiences of the Highlander Folk School group [2] suggest that skills may not be learned until class conscious workers reconsider their roles in society and are motivated by understanding their social roles through conflict situation role playing. This extreme position vis-à-vis the position of skill acquisition within the learning process has not earned universal approbation.

In Italy, since 1973, some two hundred thousand workers, housewives and unemployed have been through the 150 hours course - a one year part-time diploma course in basic education. The courses were held in high schools and in universities. A survey of teachers and students suggests that teachers give more emphasis to political and trade union motivations than do the students. As a community project bringing together teachers and students, and working class students with university students who also may attend the seminars in the course, it was a failure. Clearly, the teachers were not reflecting student interests and the researcher reported that workers abandoned the seminars to university students as the pace of learning increased beyond their ability. Community education, this experience suggests, does not mean that disparate interest groups should attend the same course. [3]

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1. Bailon, A.M., Recommendations for a Community Adult Learning Centre based on a Survey of Factors Inhibiting Mexican Americans' Participation in Continuing Education Classes, Ed. D., The Fielding Institute, Calif., 1977 (unpublished).

2. Adams, F., Unearthing Seeds of Fire; the Idea of Highlander, J.F. Blair Publisher, Winston-Salem, North Carolina, 1975.

3. Yarnit, M., '150 hours - Italy's experiment in mass working-class adult education', in Thompson, J. (Ed.), Adult Education for a Change, London, Hutchinson, 1980.

The University of Otago in New Zealand instituted a 'Group for Community Learning Centre' which was to put the University's educational research and service resources at the disposal of community self-help projects. The Centre was to:

- provide a setting for life-long learning opportunities which were responsive to existing community concerns and needs;
- offer a range of university expertise to a specific community at minimal cost;
- involve hitherto non-participant residents in community efforts;
- permit planning for community improvement and problem solving in a politically neutral context.

Two neighbourhoods were selected which were considered to be typical urban areas, each with a population of 3,000. One area was to be a control area with no project activity. Programmes included:

- sessions on purchasing quality home-repair services;
- encouraging self-help in existing community networks.

All courses involved university teachers working in partnership with those members of the community who had specialised skills and ideas which they believed could be shared with others. The research and evaluation suggest that eight out of every ten involved in the project intended to be so for more than five years.[1]

In 1976, Iowa State University's Cooperative Extension Service worked with a leadership group in Sac City, Iowa, in planning and coordinating a community development workshop. Seminars were conducted on areas such as local government, education, political socialisation, adoption-diffusion, power structures, attitude change and social action with a view to new action programmes to enhance life in the community.[2]

Questionnaires to elicit community attributes were delivered and administered by volunteers to 143 in-town residents, 33 rural residents, and 32 senior high school students. The response rate was 90%, attributed to the value of personal contacts as a contrast to the usual mailed (postal) sample. Respondents were asked to evaluate various services such as the

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1. Carr, N., 'Community learning groups in New Zealand', in Adult Education, 50, No. 2, 1977.

2. Goudy, W.J. and Tait, J.L., 'Integrating research with local community development programmes', in Journal of the Community Development Society, Vol. 10, No. 2, Fall 1979.

local newspaper and opportunities such as 'cultural' in two ways. First, by their evaluation of the item according to their opinion on how it served the community, and second, by their perception of the improvement needed. For example, on public transport available, the present system merited 11 out of 100, and the figure for need for improvement was 70 out of 100. Another example was the scores for good programmes and activities for older citizens; the scores were 59 and 49 respectively. The analysis of the data suggested four major problem areas, viz:

- the need to encourage tourism by dredging Black Hawk Lake;
- the need to attract new industry;
- the desirability of building an indoor swimming pool;
- developing low cost housing for younger and elderly adults.

Apparently the committee did not consider they could do much about the first two items other than pressure local elected representatives. However, the committee obtained a loan from the Farmers' Home Administration for the construction of a public housing project of twelve units. Funds were raised by various voluntary means for a swimming pool which would also be used by the community high school.

The researchers emphasise that the main achievements were:

- involvement of more citizens in leadership roles;
- developing communication networks within the community.

They also argue that it was a combination of research, seminars or learning groups and social action which led to the success of the venture. They doubt if any single activity would have been as effective.

In an interesting account of community development in Latin America, Aranjo emphasises some of the lessons from the account given above, namely the need to avoid abstract educational objectives which are progressively further removed from the productive and social circumstances and the working and living conditions of the population. In particular he notes that generic programmes devised for urban areas have nearly always failed when transferred to rural areas. His basic thesis is that each community is unique and its specific characteristics must be discovered, and thereafter taken into account, if the community is to perceive the relevance of the programme.[1]

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1. Aranjo, J.E., 'Adult education, community enterprises and rural development in Latin America', in International Review of Education, Vol. 11, No. 2, 1978.

Miami-Dade Community College, South Florida, is the largest community college system in the United States. Thousands of students without the means to attend private institutions 'graduated' through these community colleges without a locally accessible university to absorb those who wished to continue their studies. Thus, Florida International University was opened in 1972 (ten years after the first Miami-Dade campus started) to recruit these students and late-transfer students from private institutions who no longer enjoyed parental support. The majority of students at Florida International University work full-time or part-time, most are married or have substantial family responsibilities and 60% attend classes only after 5.00 p.m. and during weekends. The average age of the general student population is 28 years. [1]

To reach this learning community, the University:

- offers courses on its main campus (Tamiami) and in widely distributed satellite locations, in public facilities;
- allows students to attend full-time or part-time, during the day or during the evening;
- offers five quarter-credit-hour courses twice a week or in weekly five hour sessions over a period of ten weeks;
- recognises that 90% of university graduates have full-time jobs by offering master's degree programmes on an evening-only basis;
- incorporates for external degree students the possibility of obtaining credit for learning from their work experiences which precedes their enrolment;
- allows students on degree programmes to use independent learning systems; thus there is an alternative and individualised path to the attainment of the degrees offered through the university's traditional programmes;
- uses outside consultants, such as attorneys in the Florida State Public Defender's Office, to direct a student who has chosen that area of study to decide on his independent reading, to advise, to assist in student work evaluation and to ensure that the student's study is related to actual professional practice.

The local community, be it a village or a neighbourhood, may therefore receive and wish for a service from a State institution or, as is the case in the United Kingdom, from regional bodies such as the University Extra-

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1. Pagano, J.O., 'Linking a community of learners with a community of scholars', in International Review of Education, 23, No. 2, 1977.

mural Boards or, indirectly, through Regional Advisory Councils or the WEA or residential colleges or national institutions such as the broadcasters or the Open University. Sometimes, 'community educators' tend to ignore such regional or national resources but fortunately most local authorities in the United Kingdom regard the local application of national and regional resources as part of the community service. The conclusion we draw from this account of activity in Florida is, however, that local communities may not use outside resources unless the providers offer services which are flexible enough to be used locally and which 'are based on the assumption that all resources in a community are potential learning forces'. [1]

We have noted above that Florida International University offers its students public facilities. Leonetti reports the use of store-front classrooms as a means of attracting members of the local community to adult education. He argues that the store-front classroom is an extension of the home environment and less threatening and is readily accessible. Apparently individualised instruction is offered in an informal mode and the students determine their own schedule for attendance. [2]

There are also examples from the United States of libraries being used as both classrooms and resource centres but as this practice is not uncommon in the United Kingdom we shall not comment further. [3]

We shall deal with the use of media, principally radio and television, in a later section. Suffice it to note here that overseas the media are used by countries with highly advanced technology, such as the United States, or in countries where the technology is rudimentary but the spread of the rural population makes radio, in particular, particularly efficient. Tanzania and Nigeria would be in this classification. In Nigeria, for example, most of the adult education programmes are planned and executed from a central point; the students congregate in communities to receive instruction through radio. The main problem is the linking of the instruction, even when it is non-formal, with community development. [4]

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1. Hiemstra, R., 'Educating parents in the use of the Community', in Adult Leadership, September 1974.
2. Leonetti, R., 'The outreach classroom', in Adult Leadership, Sept., 1976.
3. Eyster, G., The Coordination of Library and Basic Education Services for Disadvantaged Adults, Vol. 1, Final Report, Morehead State University, Appalachian Adult Education Center, February 1975.
4. Etuk, G.T., Adult Education for Community Development; a Comparative Study of the Role of Adult Education in Community Development in Nigeria and Tanzania, Ed.D., Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N.J.,1981, unpublished.

5.0 COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS

5.1 Introduction

It is thought that in England and Wales about 260 community schools exist, about three quarters of which are to be found in County local authority administrative areas. About 80% are secondary schools, about 15% are primary schools and the rest are middle schools. Very few local education authorities use the community school as the sole means of providing adult education; there is considerable variation ranging from nearly four-fifths of adult education provision through this means to about one fifth. Clearly, the community college and school is an important part of the structure of adult education provision. But there is a series of types of community school, namely:

- the community school which serves an entire neighbourhood;
- the community school which shares its premises with the community, such as the large comprehensive which offers the use of its library and swimming pool to the community;
- the school which develops a curriculum of community study, arguing for the relevance of local materials;
- the school where there is a degree of community control;
- the school which involves itself in promoting social change within the local community. This school may well have longer opening hours, allow the community use of buildings and community participation.

In fact few schools fall into these neat categories; if the following table were completed, with Yes or No, it is doubtful if 'Yes' would be the universal answer.

Criteria for judging facilities and participation in community schools[1]

Community use of facilities:	library, youth club, sports, evening class?
Additional day time provision:	pre-school, extended day for pupils, elderly?
Mechanisms for local participation:	parent-teacher associations, representation on governing body?
Pupils and community:	adaptations to curriculum, community service scheme?
Intake:	all pupils from neighbourhood?

1. From Hatch, S. and Moylan, S., 'The role of the Community School', in Raynor, J. and Horden, J. (Eds.), Equality and City Schools; Readings in Urban Education, Volume 2, London, Routledge Kegan Paul, 1973.

But the value of the community education movement lies in the spirit and intention of the protagonist. It is superficial to take a cynical view drawn from the difficulties of putting their ideals into practice. Therefore in this section we will deal not just with cooperation on the use of games fields, practical rooms, sports halls, lecture halls, but with something much deeper. We would expect evidence of people from all organisations joining together to plan and help forward the cooperation. We would expect adults of all ages and conditions to participate in community colleges and in schools, adults would be expected to be able to participate in classes with older pupils.[1] All resources would be available to the local community. The feeling should be - in the words of Robert Blockledge, former County Education Officer, Wiltshire - one of bustle and activity.

It is worth noting that though there are examples of the idea of community education based on schools or colleges, like those of Henry Morris, the pioneer in Cambridgeshire, and further examples from Leicestershire,[2,3] Devon and the New Towns, the upsurge of public interest, though still far from commonplace, is a phenomenon of the last decade only.[4,5] We therefore are more likely to find descriptive accounts of how community colleges or schools operate than critical research.

5.2 Community colleges and centres in the United Kingdom

Between 1972 and 1974, Hutchinson[6(a)] made a study of the Leicestershire Community Colleges particularly of the use of the colleges by the adult

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1. Poster, C., Community Education; its Development and Management, Heinemann Education, London, 1982
2. Harvey, B., 'The community colleges in Leicestershire; an interim report', in Studies in Adult Education, Vol. 3, No. 2, October 1971.
3. Fairbairn, A.N., The Leicestershire Community Colleges, National Institute of Adult Education, Leicester, 1971.
4. Poster, C., 1982.
5. See, Kelly, T., A Select Bibliography of Adult Education in Great Britain, National Institute of Adult Education, 1974, in which community colleges in the index merit three entries.
6. Hutchinson, E.M., 'Participation in the Leicestershire Community Colleges' in Studies in Adult Education, Vol.6, No.2, October 1974, NIAE.

(a) Hutchinson, E.M. conducted a follow-up study in 1978/79 which was presented to Leicestershire Education Office in 1980; not yet published.

community and the participation of adults in the class programme. The Community Colleges were multi-purpose institutions attempting to integrate their general service to the community with their specific roles as secondary schools. They provided classes, acted as centres for youth activities, offered facilities to affiliated community groups and self-programming clubs, organised special events such as concerts, lectures, exhibitions and convivial occasions and promoted out-of-school activities like holiday play centres, educational visits and foreign exchanges. At the time of Hutchinson's investigation of the sixteen community colleges:

- 9 were based on high schools, that is for pupils to the age of 14 years;
- 7 were based on upper schools, that is for young people 14-18 years.

In addition there were 11 community centres, primary schools with additional accommodation for community purposes, and:

- 31 evening centres using unadapted school premises in the evening and
- 5 colleges of further education existed in the County.

Clearly, the divisions between 'college' and 'school' that we suggested in our introduction to this section are more logical than descriptive of circumstances in Leicestershire during Hutchinson's enquiry. However, in 1974 the system was in a period of gestation so Hutchinson found a mixture of organisations.

Between 1970/71 and 1972/73 total adult enrolments increased by 20% to approximately 30,000 throughout the County. Enrolments, by percentage, were distributed as follows:

- Community Colleges 50% (rounded figures)
- Community Centres 8%
- Evening Centres 24%
- Colleges of Further Education 18%

Hutchinson estimated that in Leicestershire the Community Colleges achieved a greater take-up of accessible population, that is the population thought to be within practicable reach of the centre, than did the other three types of organisation. (But it has been argued that they served the types of local area communities most likely to be attracted to adult education.)

In February 1973, 700 responses to a questionnaire containing both factual and open-ended questions revealed the following information:

	Percentages Enrolments Sep. 1972	Percentages Feb. 1973 Sample
Sex - male	28	27
female	72	73
Subjects		
1. Arts, languages group	25	18
2. Practical, arts, crafts	41	46
3. Physical activities	34	36
Students under 18 years		
1. as above	13	8
2. as above	5	4
3. as above	17	9

The difference in enrolment figures of the under 18 group was thought to reflect the characteristics of the subject areas on offer.

He found, so far as class attendance was concerned, that compared with national statistics, the Leicestershire group had higher proportions of people with

- school education beyond the compulsory minimum;
- continuative further education at both lower and higher levels;
- certificates of educational and/or professional qualification.

There was the expected concurrence between educational experience and the students' declared socio-economic status. The practical subjects of dress and textiles attracted one quarter of participants from women of pensionable age, compared with 15% in other practical classes and 3% in all others. These subjects also attracted an exceptionally high proportion of women with the least favourable earlier education.

Eighty per cent of students said that it took less than 15 minutes to travel to their centre.

About 20% claimed to be attending additional classes and this feature apparently increased with age. Hutchinson was unable to state (because of the relatively short period of enquiry) whether total enrolments came substantially from new contacts or from more persistence by those who had attended previously. People attending more than one class were generally likely to be drawn from those who had come for two or more consecutive years.

The numbers in the sample involved in management activities or attending college events were relatively small, too small to identify

differences between colleges. There was a general lack of reference to the community college concept in the open comments.

The highest proportion of students suggested that they came because of interest/occupation and expressed satisfaction with the general friendliness/relaxed atmosphere.

Hutchinson compared adult students attending the high schools and the upper schools. He concluded by noting that 'the relative attractiveness of different schools to adult users would merit detailed enquiry over an extended period'.

According to college prospectuses over 300 local self-programming groups had access to college facilities and shared in the responsibilities of management. The high school colleges had a markedly higher average number of affiliations than the upper school colleges, but the high school colleges had a working experience of ten years compared with four in the case of upper school colleges.

In 1971, community colleges were given local budget allocations to enhance the autonomous direction of college councils and management committees whilst operating within the constraints of county budgetary policy. The Colleges were given allowances to cover various heads of expenditure, but from their student fees and other locally raised income they had to account to the County fund for a predetermined percentage of part-time salaries - 30% in 1972/73. Difficulties were reported due to inflationary cost increases during the accounting year, the non-alignment of the financial and academic years, and the problem of reconciling local record keeping with the sophisticated and computerised accounting practices of the local authority. Savings by colleges accrued to the County fund, whilst overspending had to be met from local resources. Hutchinson reported that in 1974 it was too early to make a fair assessment of its effectiveness in involving the communities in decision making.[1]

Hutchinson appears to doubt the effectiveness of the upper schools with their large catchment area as sustaining the role of 'the college of the community'. Rather, the effective result seemed to be the 'community of the College'.

Nevertheless, 'within (societal) constraints, which are of general force, the Colleges provide satisfactions for higher proportions of their

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1. See, Williams, G., 'Managing community education; a Leicestershire case study', in Adult Education, Vol. 50, No. 6, March 1978.

accessible publics than is common in other areas. Those who respond to what is on offer, however, are drawn from much the same ranges of educational and socio-economic backgrounds as elsewhere'. [1]

However, the Colleges provided convivial settings of great importance particularly in areas of rapid population growth and mobility. But he considered that the system he studied was 'relatively recent and is still undergoing rapid development'. Clearly it had a long way to go before approaching the hopes expressed by 'community educators' in the United Kingdom or overseas. (a)(b)

The Cambridgeshire Village College - also known as Community College - consisted of a secondary school in which the village hall served as a school hall or gymnasium during the day and as a social or recreational centre during the evenings. Specialist rooms were attached for village meetings, classes, youth organisations, Women's Institutes. They included a local branch of the library for school and public alike. The village recreation ground was sited alongside the college buildings so that dressing rooms and showers could be readily available at weekends and summer evenings for village games players of all ages. [2] The first village college opened in Sawston in 1930. Of course, in 1930, the villages in Cambridgeshire were relatively isolated. The depopulation of agricultural areas and the new major road systems have turned many of these villages into dormitory areas for people working in urban areas. Impington, whose Village College was designed by Walter Gropius, is certainly, in 1982, a suburb of Cambridge. Indeed, such are the social changes that Stock's [2] comment is most apposite, namely that there is little detailed evaluative research of a quantitative character on the impact of community colleges on the health, welfare and social life of their neighbourhoods.

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1. See, Hughes, M., 'Adult education on the cheap; an extension of adult education into the classroom', in Adult Education, Vol. 50, No. 4, November 1977.

(a) See Chapter 7, 'Accessibility of institutions', in Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education, Continuing Education; from Policies to Practice, ACACE, Leicester, 1982, as an interesting supplementary view.

(b) See, Saltiel, H., Community Colleges; the Concept and the Reality, M.Phil thesis, University of Nottingham, 1976, unpublished.

2. Stock, A.K., 'Community Colleges in the United Kingdom', in International Review of Education, Vol. 20, 1974.

Nonetheless, the Cambridgeshire Village Colleges may claim certain success in providing a service for people of all ages in a local area. This is particularly so in the appointment of a wide range of specialist music, arts, drama and community education staff. In recent years the disadvantage of the single mammoth institution [1] has been ameliorated by attaching primary schools with community aims into the network of colleges.

Walls (1967) described the development of a comprehensive school into a community school serving people on a large council estate. His conclusions suggested that whilst the evening class provision had increased, more positive steps to enter into the life of the community were required.[2]

A study of five community college systems in Cumbria, Devon, Leicestershire, Oxfordshire and Walsall has been reported by Jennings (1980). [3] In this text, H.E.S. Marks [4] suggests some conclusions, namely:

- the community college pattern of organisation has to be judged in relation to all its purposes and to all the groups within the community which the institution sets out to serve;
- there is inevitably a wide gap between ideals and practice in educational institutions. To this community colleges are certainly no exception, partly because their claims are often set so high and their objectives so complicated and various as well as so far-reaching. The dominant claims, in practice, of the largest and most expensive element, the school, with its statutory requirements, also generally create imbalances, and greatly affect the aspects of provision which show most success. This is not to say that there are not generally successful community colleges .... ;
- research-derived information and serious analytic enquiry about the progress of community colleges is not available. There is a need for enquiry about the strength and weaknesses of different forms of organisation related to different aspects of community college purpose;

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1. See Stock, A.K., Multipurpose Buildings for Life-long Education, Paper prepared for the UNESCO World Conference on Adult Education, Tokyo, 1972.

2. Walls, A.E., The Community School and the Solutions it Offers to Some Social and Educational Problems on a Bristol Housing Estate, M.A. thesis, University of London, 1967 (unpublished).

3. Jennings, B. (Ed.), Community Colleges in England and Wales, National Institute of Adult Education, Leicester, 1980.

4. Marks, H.E.S., in above, pp. 62-65.

- it would be unreasonable to attempt conclusive judgments on the many varieties of community colleges and schools based on practice up to the present;
- adult education is likely to be better served through federal rather than unitary structures in the larger schools.

Clearly, in certain circumstances and in certain areas, the community college has many attractions and advantages. However, it must be noted that Mee and Wiltshire [1] identified four inbuilt disadvantages which derive from their structure, namely that:

- there is a gap between school and adult students;
- school education is compulsory and full-time and adult education is voluntary and part-time; there are wide organisational and attitudinal differences between the two services;
- school tradition tends to be one of central control rather than departmental independence;
- school-youth-adult integration excludes further and higher education, the very sectors with which adult education is likely to have most in common.

It may well be that certain Village Colleges or Community Colleges or Community Schools have discovered means of overcoming the above disadvantages. If so, there is little research available to date to demonstrate their ability to do so. (a) Perhaps we may illustrate the difficulty of evaluating evidence. For example, Fairbairn, writing in 1978, avers 'over the brief twenty four years of their existence, the Community Colleges of Leicestershire have proved resourceful and adaptable to changing circumstances and to the needs of urban and rural areas. So far they constitute a success story; but they are only at the beginning ..... '. [2,3]

A rather different concept of a community college is exemplified by the case of Nelson and Colne College (a college of further education). The range of activities at this College is as follows: the nominal further

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1. Mee, G. and Wiltshire, H.C., Structure and Performance in Adult Education, London, Longman, 1978.

(a) But see Smith, G. and T. (1975) for an account which we have reasons for believing is substantially descriptive of the position in 1982.

2. Fairbairn, A.N., The Leicestershire Community Colleges and Centres, University of Nottingham, Department of Adult Education, 1978.

3. Hutchinson, E.M., 1974, provides further evidence of developments in Leicestershire.

education college role, the arts, urban involvement, provision for the disadvantaged, matters of general public interest such as seminars for local councillors, sport, information services, and new organisational arrangements such as encouraging mature students to take courses based on modular systems.

The College is operated to serve the community according to the following principles:

- there is a college development unit which draws on the part-time services of staff from all the College departments;
- the volunteer principle is encouraged; once the College had initiated an activity, the continuation of that venture was to pass completely into the hands of volunteers in the community;
- constant collaboration with local councils, agencies, firms, and national and regional organisations is regarded as essential;
- sources of finance other than those provided by the local authority were to be tapped.

Although the community oriented activities formed only a small proportion of the College's work, it has been argued that they colour people's views of the College and affect public attitudes to the College. The College extends the adult education opportunities within that community but Barber's report suggests that lack of finance for extending these activities was a major inhibiting factor.[1]

The importance of adequate development finance has been emphasised by Jackson who described the involvement of the James Watt College in community work. The report we have read describes the project from 1972 to 1975. The Rowntree Trust committed £7,000 per year for seven years; IBM seconded a volunteer from their staff to work on the project for two years; the Corporation provided a house as accommodation for the first full-time worker and as meeting rooms; James Watt College supplied resources. Apparently some 350 part-time students were attracted in 1975 to a variety of activities and classes.[2,3]

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1. Barber, D., 'The college and the community; new dimensions', in Coombe Lodge Reports, Vol. 9, No. 16, 1977.

2. Jackson, J., 'The Strone and Maukinhill informal education project - a Greenock experiment', in Scottish Journal of Adult Education, Vol. 2, No. 2, Spring 1976.

3. See also, Mack, J., 'A people's classroom', in New Society, 3rd March, 1977, for a journalist's account of the above project.

Like Nelson and Colne College, James Watt College took the view that when community education begins to work through the community then the College's influence recedes. It is interesting to read that colleges of further education in two different countries see their role as initiators of community educative enterprises. This seems to be in contrast to the concept of the community college based on schools which seems to see the school as a continuing centre for community activities.

Sometimes the community centre may be a site containing as separate institutions a school, a further education college, an adult centre, and a library. This was the case in the Abraham Moss Centre, Manchester. The whole site was erected at a cost of £2.3 million. There were obviously problems as in 1975 four separate committees of Manchester City Council were responsible for running the site. Unfortunately, we did not find any recent research on the relationship of the Centre to the local community.

5.3 Community colleges in the United States

During the 1960's and early 1970's, a new two-year college opened in the United States virtually every week. Enrolments seemed to increase exponentially with no apparent limit in sight. In 1978, however, for the first time in twenty years there was a one per cent drop in total community college enrolment. Since 1970, there have been more adult part-time students attending two year colleges than traditional full-time eighteen to twenty-one year old students and the proportion of adult part-time students was expected to increase during the 1980's. In 1976 there were 1.7 million full-time students and 2.2 million part-time students enrolled in community colleges. The figures forecast for 1986 were 2.1 million attending full-time and 3.8 million attending part-time. But there was a variation in experience between States; California, for example, reported, as early as 1972, that two thirds of the students in the Junior Colleges were part-time and that half of them were over the age of twenty-one years.

The early junior or community college innovators saw them as providing programmes that paralleled the first two years of graduate education.[1] In the 1950's and 60's the aim was to provide a balance between transfer, vocational and community programmes.[2] By 1970, with the preponderance of

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1. Zwerling, L.S., Second Best; the Crisis of the Community Colleges, New York, McGraw Hill, 1976.

2. Zwerling, L.S., 'The new "new student"; the working adult', in New Directions for Community Colleges, Vol. 8, No.4, 1980 - Questioning the Community College Role

adult part-time students, their main aim was the community education function of the two year college.[1] Such work includes non-credit courses, remedial programmes, adult basic education, group counselling. But the bulk of their work is precisely analagous to that of the local colleges of further education in Britain.

The major casualty among the three original aims has been the transfer programmes. Only a small fraction of part-time students enrolled for credit actually transfer to baccalaureate programmes. Many discontinue even after good academic achievement.[2] Thus the two year colleges are considered to be becoming sub-collegiate technical institutes and centres for continuing education.

The author states that part-time adult education - because of the financial penalties which apply to part-time study - has enlarged the gaps between black and white, rich and poor and schooled and unschooled. To narrow these gaps the two year colleges should base their services and offerings on the needs and real aspirations of the 'new students'. Colleges should stop treating adult part-time students as if they were traditional students with lighter course loads but seek to respond to the needs of part-time learners. A Returning Adult Student Project which enquired at six community colleges in New York State, found marked differences between the perceived needs of full-time and part-time students. The former were primarily concerned with social and personal development; the latter with vocational and skills improvement and formats to accelerate learning, independent study, life experience credit, fewer class meetings per week.[3]

All too often such programmes and services required by part-time students did not exist. Kegal, in 1977, found that:

- less than 1 in 5 institutions offered any kind of career orientation programme;
- only 1 in 2 provided counselling;

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1. Cohen, A.M. and Lombardi, J., 'Can the community college survive success?', in Change, Vol. 11, No. 8, 1979.

2. Knoell, D. and others, Through the Open Door; a Study of Patterns of Enrolment and Performance in California's Community Colleges, Sacramento, California State Post-Secondary Commission, 1976.

3. Mangano, J.A. and Corrado, T.J., Meeting Academic Success Needs of Re-entry Adults, Final Report, Albany, State University of New York, Two-year College Student Development Center, 1979.

- less than 1 in 5 had special financial aid programmes;
- less than 5 per cent provided child care services for evening students although 25 per cent did so for full-time day students. [1]

Consequently, Kegal concluded 'the part-time student is a welcome customer, but one who is definitely not accorded much attention or service by the institution' (p.41).

Zwerling suggests that the community colleges should respond to community requirements in the following ways:

- provide more non-campus learning opportunities;
- encourage home learning by using television, especially cable TV;
- help students sharpen rusty academic and study skills;
- provide counselling to encourage, in particular, women;
- offer weekend family facilities where parents and children may attend together, e.g. Rockland Community College (New York). [2]

Probably the most serious criticism levelled above is that the community colleges promote the economic and social status quo rather than aid upward mobility. Some critics in the United States claim this is done by the following means:

- the United States has a hierarchical system of higher education with open-door community colleges at the bottom and selective four-year institutions at the top. Because of this stratification, the great majority of those who attend community colleges are doomed to remain near the bottom;
- by offering inexpensive education within commuting distance, 'blue-collar' students have been encouraged to attend community colleges, thereby leaving the prestigious four-year colleges and universities to more affluent people;
- since community colleges primarily serve students from minority and lower socio-economic groups, they function to limit these groups to low status jobs requiring less than a bachelor's degree;
- community colleges have contributed to educational inflation and thereby have lessened the value of post-secondary education. Some critics contend that members of the lower socio-economic groups now need two years of education beyond high school just to stay even in

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1. Kegal, P.L., Community and Junior College Concern for and Services Provided for Part-time Students, March, 1977 (ED. 138 324, quoted by Zwerling, L.S. 1980).
2. Zwerling, L.S. (1980).

society. There may be the false feeling of social mobility experienced by community college graduates, but their relative position in the social structure remains the same;

- community colleges 'cool out' students by encouraging them to lower their aspirations from professional degrees by settling for career curriculum;
- cooling out often results in class based tracking of students into terminal vocational programmes that limit graduates to the world of the semi-professional and technician. Thus, the colleges serve as a 'safety valve' to certain social and political pressures that otherwise might explode.

Clark, [1,2] writing as long ago as 1960, was the first to suggest that community colleges encourage students to lower their sights and accept courses which will not enable them to transfer to higher colleges. All subsequent writers in the United States on this subject refer to Clark's work. Clearly, this is a matter which has received attention in the United Kingdom. Nearly all adult educators in Britain have noted over and over again that narrow job-related courses at an early stage in an adult's life may, first, stop an adult from further education and progress during his life and, second, may be related to a job which through the process of industrial and commercial innovation will disappear, leaving the adult with a useless, narrow skill. [3]

But there are other researchers in the United States who judge the Community College role by other criteria than the transfer role. Like Fairbairn of Leicestershire, success is considered to be in the role of the College as a community institution. [4] But these writers appear to argue that though there is this community role, the community colleges in the United States have not defined it nor have they demonstrated it in practice.

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1. Clark, B.R.,'The "cooling-out" function in higher education', in The American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 65, No. 6, 1960.
2. Clark, B.R., The Open Door College; a Case Study, McGraw Hill, 1960.
3. See, Karabel, J., 'Community colleges and social stratification', in Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 42, No. 4, 1972, for an American statement of this point of view.
4. See, De Crow, R., Older Americans; New Uses of Mature Ability, American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, Washington, DC, 1978.

Cohen [1] writes, 'the cruelest myth of all is the one which perpetuates the fiction that junior colleges (apparently the term junior college is interchangeable in the United States with the description community college) offer a liberal general education to their students'. [2] Incidentally, Cohen complains of the lack of institutional research in the community colleges. [3]

Astin (1977) alleges that community colleges received the support of academics in more prestigious institutions 'because it represented a way of expanding educational opportunities that did not threaten their own selectivity and eliteness'. [4] He compared student behaviour in community colleges with that of students in four year residential colleges to ascertain the degree of success in improving, supporting and encouraging individual student growth. He found in the community colleges:

- less support for student power;
- a more traditional role for women;
- a lesser chance of assuming leadership roles;
- less involvement in any number of areas traditionally associated with going to college.

The above, in Astin's view, does not support the view that community colleges contribute to equal educational opportunity.

However, community college leaders argue that such comparisons are unfair. Would the American educational system be fairer without the community colleges? For many in the lower socio-economic groups the community college is their sole means of educational advancement.

The above argument shows that the American word 'community' in the title 'community college' does not denote the same objectives as in Britain. It is therefore useful to be able to refer to Goodwyn [5] who has personal

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1. Cohen, A.M., Dateline '79; Heretical Concepts for the Community College, Beverley Hills, Glencoe Press, 1969.

2. See also, Cohen, A.M., 'Hiding behind the classroom door', in The Chronicle of Higher Education, Vol. 12, No. 20, 1976.

3. Cohen, A.M. et al, A Constant Variable; New Perspectives on the Community College, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass, 1971.

4. Astin, A.W., Four Critical Years; Effects of College on Beliefs, Attitudes and Knowledge, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass, 1977.

5. Goodwyn, A.C., 'American community colleges; an inspiring example?' in New Universities Quarterly, Vol. 36, No. 2, Spring 1982.

experience of teaching in a school and community college in England and in a community college in the United States. He argues that:

- community colleges have about 40% of the share of post-compulsory education in the United States (universities 20%, other colleges 20%);
- they have had notable success with all ages and types of student and racial minorities in particular. Half of all black students at college in America are, at present, in community colleges;
- federal and state support is such that there has been one building completed per week since the beginning of the 1970's and student enrolments have increased from 1.8 million in 1968 to 4.2 million in 1978;
- the community colleges are characterised by the comprehensiveness of their courses and the genuine variety of choice that they offer their students;
- they are flexible, namely that
  - students can stay beyond the minimum time of the two years and re-take courses to reach required standards;
  - part-time students can accumulate credits, even with gaps in attendance;
  - courses on a termly basis allow for movement between institutions;
  - credits are transferable;
  - subjects are not divided academically into technical or arts or science;
  - classes are from early morning to late evening;
- they accept anyone of post-high-school age regardless of qualifications;
- they especially encourage the disadvantaged and social minorities;
- they have a heterogeneous student body which may be regarded as positive diversity;
- they are available to local groups whether such groups are attached to the college or not;
- they are geographically evenly distributed so that even in a vast state like Florida, no potential student is more than one hour's travelling distance from a college.

He argues that though some British colleges of further education offer students a 'second chance', community colleges in America do this with a planned care that, at present, is far superior to the British approach. 'The British tertiary sector is desperately in need of inspiration and ideas with these very qualities' - by British tertiary sector, he seems to mean the colleges of further education.

As a result of our reading of research conducted in the United States, we have been impressed with the remarkable diversity of institutions and of the roles of institutions classified with the same label. Goodwyn's evidence, though valuable and interesting, refers to experience in a particular college, whereas the previous comments from American researchers appear to be derived from more generalised surveys. On balance, it would be difficult to support wholeheartedly Goodwyn's stance. Indeed, this variety of institutional circumstances becomes clear when research into their finance is taken into account. Augenblick (1978) examined community college finance systems in Mississippi, New Jersey, California and Illinois. He found that:

- district wealth varied substantially between community college districts and variations in total revenues were related, in some cases strongly, to variations in wealth;
- tuition levels were also related to wealth, although the direction of the relationship was not uniform among the states examined.[1]

Further, there are differences between the small rural community colleges and the larger urban or rural colleges. Apparently small rural colleges find difficulty in recruiting part-time instructors, in self-funding from enrolments, and in finding factory equipment for occupational students to practise on. The rural college is often a cultural centre and frequently has easier access to private foundation funds.[2]

The potential students of community colleges find meeting tuition costs a major impediment. A survey conducted in Delaware County showed that nearly all respondents felt tuition costs were a major impediment.[3] This information caused us to wonder if community colleges were really within the means of the most severely disadvantaged sections of American

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1. Augenblick, J., Issues in Financing Community Colleges, Education Finance Center, Education Commission of the States, Denver, Colorado, October 1978.

2. Cohen, A.M., Current Research on Small/Rural Community Colleges, separating fact from fiction, Paper, National Conference on Small/Rural Colleges, Blacksburg, Virginia, August 1978.

3. Response Analysis Corp., Princeton, N.J., A Comprehensive Assessment of Adult Educational Needs in Delaware County, Research Report, Response Analysis Corp., sponsored by Delaware County Community College, 1978 (Media Pa).

society.[1,2] But some colleges offer financial aid to certain students; apparently potential recipients are often unaware of such facilities. [3]

Probably the most recent development in the American community colleges is the growing number of students of 50 years or over attending their courses. Emerging programmes for this group were reported from about 1978 onwards; such innovation extends the involvement of the college in the community and will clearly grow in importance as the proportion of people over 50 years in the population increases. [4] In California, a survey of 166 colleges showed that:

- 43% were offering classes or programmes for retired persons;
- 60% had cooperated with other community agencies in offering programmes;
- the most popular courses for the elderly were in estate planning, health nutrition, tax preparation, budget management and physical fitness;
- programmes for the aged and retired had been cut on the withdrawal of the State subsidy. (Presumably the poorest sections of this community were the most affected). [5]

Apparently the economic recession of the early 1980's affected American community colleges. There is a familiar ring in the following: 'Community colleges are being challenged to plan ahead and to be aware of and to anticipate the pressures of declining resources, changing student profiles and interests and more competition for students and funds'. [6,7]

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1. See Louth, L.V. and Zabek, R.J., An Analysis of WCC's (Wytheville Community Colleges) Community Needs Survey, Office of Institutional Research Report, Wytheville Community College, Virginia, 1978.
2. See also, Hutchins, E.C., The Learning Needs of Adults in Johnson County, Texas, Hill Junior College, Hillsboro, Texas, 1978.
3. Maghill, K. and Cirksena, K.P., Problems and Information Needs of Women Re-entering Higher Education, Center for Research on Women, Stanford University, California, 1978.
4. De Crow, R., 1978.
5. Charles, R.C., Survey Results for Participating Colleges; Classes and Programs for the Aged in California Community Colleges, 1978, California Community Colleges, Continuing Education Association, De Curza College, Cupertino, California, June 1979.
6. Cosand, J.P., Perspective; Community Colleges in the 1980's, Horizon Issues, Monograph Series, Council of Universities and Colleges, Washington, 1979.
7. See Stock, A.K., (Editor), commentaries in Adult Education; for example Adult Education Vol. 55, No. 1, June 1982, NIAE.

5.4 Community Schools in the United Kingdom

We have seen that in Britain, in certain areas, some secondary schools have been given or have adopted a community role. In order to achieve a more even geographical spread, similar arrangements have been made in some primary schools either as a separate unit or in association with a secondary school.

Elsey (1978) evaluated a school-based short course for mothers in a poor area of Nottingham. The major purpose of this course was to enable mothers to understand how school life had changed so that they could understand and cooperate in the school's purposes. The tutor was appointed by the Workers' Educational Association and was supported by two voluntary helpers, the school's headmaster and a community teacher. The course consisted of practical activities, arts and crafts, basic science and the three 'R's', discussion activities about the role of education, and visits. Most of the sixteen mothers had very limited qualifications.

The course appeared to have encouraged the mothers to consider proceeding further with their own education. It reinforced links between home and school but the growth in self-confidence in approaching the head was not matched by a feeling that the teachers were equally approachable. The goal of increasing understanding of the school's roles and objectives vis-à-vis the children was realised and without doubt the school was opened further to the community.[1]

We do not know if this was part of a whole array of community services or a beginning of such programmes. If neither, then the use of the word 'community' to describe the building up of good parent-teacher relations seems unnecessary. An attempt to clarify the 'community school' concept was made in 1974 by Powell.[2] He circulated questionnaires to 100 teachers in primary, secondary schools and colleges of education. From these categories, fifteen were chosen for tape-recorded interviews.

In 1974, the community school concept was considered a desirable objective unlikely to be quickly achieved. He found that the 'community

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1. Elsey, B., 'Informal adult education in a primary school', in Studies in Adult Education, Vol. 10, No. 2, 1978.

2. Powell, A.G., The (Concept of the) Community School and its Application to the United Kingdom, M.Ed., University of Manchester, 1974, unpublished. (There seems some doubt about the exact title).

school' meant different things to different people and that individual respondents tended to have knowledge of one facet. Nearly all respondents thought that community schools had a relationship with social deprivation and were concerned with improving relationships between the home and the school. The community was also thought to have the role of meeting the educational needs of the whole community in collaboration with that community.

The community was usually described as being within the geographical area from which the schools drew their pupils, but there was a surprising amount of criticism, namely:

- interdependence of communities in rural areas is not present in urban areas;
- high mobility in urban areas makes the establishment of a sense of identity unlikely;
- schools are not sited to respond to geographical needs of the community;
- teachers in schools were largely middle-class in outlook and hence not necessarily effective agents in deprived areas; [1]
- teachers were inappropriately trained, resistant to change and uncertain of their role.

Although doubts were expressed about increasing participation, there was general support for the idea of more adults in schools, particularly helping in the classroom. The school was seen as a desirable base for coordinating the work of other agencies involved in the community. The respondents saw, as most likely, the community use of school facilities.

Powell concludes his study by suggesting that the community school has valuable facets, but that there was insufficient commitment to the idea and a lack of belief that it offers solutions to problems that cannot be tackled in any other way.

Indeed, perhaps the most obvious sharing of facilities is the use of the school sports hall by adults in the evening. In 1975, the Sports Council gave grants to Walsall to open two community based primary schools' sports facilities. [2]

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1. See Hatch, S. and Moylan, S., 'The role of the community school', in New Society, 21st September 1972.

2. Nixon, R.D., (Director of Education), 'The local patron pauses for self-analysis', in Education, 21st March 1975.

There is good reason for resisting the notion that the community school (primary or secondary) is the solution. For example, Murphy and Veal reported in their study that only 10% of the middle-class/owner occupier catchment area population used the facilities of a school.[1] This figure, they said, did not differ greatly from Hutchinson's (1974) study of the Leicestershire community schools. A recent study by Percy et al suggested that in 1982 the proportion of the local population attending adult classes at the schools was about 5%. These participation rates suggest two comments:

- where no service previously existed the attraction of some 5% to 10% of the adult local population to evening activities is a considerable achievement;
- there is a tendency among adult educationists to regard an attraction rate of 10% as being low. Yet it is remarkable that one in ten of the adult population uses the service in the course of any one year; particularly as there are scraps of evidence to suggest that a substantial proportion, about two thirds, may be new participants;[2]
- Charnley, Kaye and Harry argue that in West Germany, France, Sweden, Hungary and Holland, 10% of the adult population are in any one year, involved in adult education.[3]

It seems to be the case that the newer community schools for one reason or another choose 'soft' targets for community action, such as 'Mothers and Toddlers courses', 'Keep Fit', etc. One community school's activities paid little attention to the two main social problems, namely the presence of large numbers of one parent families in the area and the need for fundamental social reconstruction. But in the particular case cited, one third of the staff of twenty-eight were probationers and the majority of the staff had less than six years' experience.[4] It seems to us that it is unrealistic to expect staff with such lack of experience to take on community work in addition to their daily school responsibilities.

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1. Murphy, B.J. and Veal, A.J., Walsall Park Hall Junior School, unpublished study, Birmingham University, 1976.

2. Murphy, B.J. and Veal, A.J., Community Use of Community Schools at the Primary Level; Two Case Studies in Walsall, Sports Council, Research Working Papers, 5, 1978.

3. See Charnley et al, in Economics and Finance of Adult Education, and p.185 of Kay, A. and Harry, K. (1982) for Holland estimates.

4. Low, G., 'Monkstown; an experiment in overcoming obstacles', in Education, Vol. 150, No. 18, 20th October 1977.

One of the most recent studies of community schools is that of Nisbet et al (1981).[1] Their three-year research study of provision of community education in the Grampian region of Scotland is based on intensive studies of five areas; rural, urban, rapidly growing, inner city and suburban. These are case studies of various forms of community education:

- designated community secondary schools (with and without the generous facilities associated with community schools);
- a primary school;
- a secondary school not designated as a community school but with easy access to extensive community facilities in a sports centre, and
- a school with few facilities available in order to examine the claim that any school may be a community school.

Six elements of community education and the school's role within it are identified:

- mutually supportive relationships between school and community;
- sharing facilities between school and community;
- a community oriented curriculum;
- life-long education;
- community development in decision making and the management of schools;
- community development.

The emphasis given to each of these ingredients depends on the school. Apparently there was an underlying difference in philosophy between teachers and community workers. The former viewed community education as complementary to existing provision; the latter considered that community education implied a redefinition. The researchers found that many day-to-day conflicts which arose could be attributed to these conflicting philosophies. Indeed, management structures also demonstrated these tensions. In some, the Head of School was responsible for both school and adult education; in others rresponsibility was shared between the Head and the community education worker.

The researchers do not conclude that any particular pattern of adult education is to be advocated for any area, national, regional or local. On the contrary, this research seems to confirm some other researchers' views that the available evidence, such as it is, points to a variety of forms of provision. By definition, a truly local service appears to be for particular groups within the locality.

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1. Nisbet, J., Hendry, L., Stewart, C. and Watt, J., Towards Community Education; an Evaluation of Community Schools, Aberdeen, Aberdeen University Press, 1981.

Nevertheless, this is not to suggest that the diversity of provision follows from logical management decisions related to community needs. There are three major areas of concern which may bear some generalisation, namely:

- the apparent lack of training in adult education on the part of school staff including the head; [1]
- the apparent lack of community share in the decisions of community schools in which the head is also in charge of the adult sector; [2,3]
- an apparent tendency for researchers to establish criteria for success which are unrealistic and then to criticise various particular schools or local authorities for not meeting them.

5.5 Community schools - experience in North America

The Americans seem to hope that community education programmes should establish an effective democratic problem-solving process among the local citizens. As a result of a questionnaire returned by 215 school districts, Udell concluded that:

- a full-time coordinator's presence was significant in implementing programmes which were concerned with processes;
- the coordinator's philosophy was important. [4]

This seems to be no more than ascribing to the captain due credit for running the ship. But this obviously important factor has not been investigated, so far as we know, in the United Kingdom. Yet there are sources of evidence which are not available to us; for example, in one area the warden of a village college was dismissed. Any lessons which were derived from his shortcomings or from the reforms and innovations of his successor could highlight management criteria.

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1. Percy, K., et al, 1982, makes the point about secondary schools; we suspect it also applies to primary schools.
2. Percy, K., et al, 1982.
3. See also, Percy, K. et al, A Study of Adult Participation in Three Community Schools in Wigan, Paper, 12th SCUTREA Annual Conference, University of Nottingham, 1982.
4. Udell, D.S., Community Education; Program or Process? A Survey of Selected Community Schools throughout the United States, Ph.D. Research Report; Research Reports on Educational Administration, Vol. III, No. 2, Arizona State University, 1978.

Sullivan (1978) made a close study of community schools in Alberta, Canada. Questionnaires were returned by 93 school administrators, 462 teachers and 1,110 community members. Interviews were conducted with 84 students and 28 administrators. His findings were:

- that in none of the schools was the community school education component developed as much as the hypothetical model chosen;
- the regular programme at the community school was based significantly more on local activities than was the case in comparison schools;
- the community schools had significantly more programmes for students and adults;
- there was more involvement in the community. [1]

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1. Sullivan, K.C., Community School Development; paper presented at the Canadian School Trustees' Association Congress on Education, Toronto, Ontario, June 17 - 21 1978.

6.0 THE ROLE OF THE MEDIA IN THE LOCAL COMMUNITY

It was perhaps a curious coincidence that this section was written on the day that a fourth television channel opened in Britain and at a time when cable television seemed to be about to be established. National and local radio networks were already well-established. There is no doubt that media play a role in local community adult education either in their own right or as integral parts of adult education initiatives. They have a role in removing some of the barriers which impede the opportunities for an individual's learning experience as we have shown in our Volume IV, 'Open Learning and Distance Education'. Here we shall deal with some evidence that has come to light since writing Volume IV.

In rural areas in France since 1966 television has been used as a means of reaching agriculturalists. The system has changed in response to new economic, technical and social circumstances and now includes broadcast films, broadcast debates, printed materials and non-broadcast audio visual materials. In the Grenoble region, 55% of the total rural population has been reached.[1]

'Just the Job' was a pilot project in South-West England which aimed at investigating the contribution which television, printed materials and a voluntary counselling network could make in assisting unemployed school-leavers make decisions about their future.[2] Using the mass media (especially TV) the project demonstrated how outreach activities supported by voluntary counsellors from the local community could assist the more disadvantaged young person. The principles of 'Just the Job' were being used in London (Capital Jobmate using local radio) to contact and help the ethnic minorities. In Somerset the local education authority had adopted the basic principles developed by 'Just the Job' and the Somerset Careers Service decided to use volunteers from the community as extension workers coordinated by them and linked with a Job-line series transmitted by Bristol-based HTV.

The Open University operates a Community Education Programme concerned with the learning of adults, in their roles of parent, consumer, employee

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1. Girardin, M., Télé Promotion Rurale, Rhone Alpes, Auvergne, France, in Kaye, H. and Harry, K. (Editors), Using the Media for Adult Basic Education, London, Croome Helm Ltd., 1982.

2. Reeves, B., 'Just the Job', Westward TV/NEC, United Kingdom, in Kaye, A. and Harry, K., 1982.

and citizen in the context of their family, workplace and community. Course materials and support services are available for any local community agency that wishes to set up discussion or learning groups. [1]

Adult literacy initiatives which have now developed as adult basic education projects operate on a local community level. Broadcasters played a major role at national level in recruiting both students and tutors. Writing in 1982, Jones and Charnley remark, 'with hindsight, two features emerge for comment: first, the remarkable goodwill shown to the idea of helping adults who were lacking literacy skills and, second, the complete under-estimate of the role of the local authority organiser as the lynch-pin of the administrative system. [2]

Looms describes a project for developing communication skills in Denmark. [3] Students were offered three basic options:

- classroom instruction, supported by course books, radio and television programmes (usually on cassettes) in the class;
- a combination of classroom and distance learning. One fifth of the time was spent in a classroom and the rest was spent by working with course books, listening to radio programmes at home or watching television at home. Off-air use of radio or television was available at a local further education centre. This course was intended for those well-equipped with study skills who would not need much tutorial assistance.
- self-service distance teaching. Counselling was available before the course and a combination of distance learning and tutorials, including telephone and monthly group sessions was arranged.

A pilot project has been tried in Holland to work towards an Open School system for adults. Radio and television were used for recruiting and publicity and as part of the instructional processes. The main criticism was that the pilot scheme was too centrally organised and one of the main developments was a movement towards a system which would engage the active cooperation of the local authorities. It should be noted that in

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1. Calder, J. and Farnes, N., 'The Open University community education programme in the UK', in Kaye, A. and Harry, K., 1982.

2. Jones, A. and Charnley, A., 'The adult literacy initiative, 1974-79', in Kaye, A. and Harry, K., 1982.

3. Looms, P.O., 'Danish for adults, Denmark's Radio', in Kaye, A. and Harry, K., 1982.

1981/82 the future of adult education was the subject of a continuous debate in the Netherlands.[1]

Radio ECCA (Emisora Cultural de Canaries) is a remarkable example of a radio broadcasting station converted into an educational centre.[2] Furthermore, it is run by a voluntary organisation, namely the Society of Jesus. Though Radio ECCA does not exclude non-formal education, its efforts are concentrated in the formal area. ECCA students are attached to a tutorial centre as near to home as possible; a great number of activities are carried out on a 1:1 basis and in group sessions. One of the interesting facets of the ECCA's experience of integrated radio, course, tutorial education is that 50% of all its students complete their course.[3]

BBC local radio stations are of particular interest to the locality served by the station rather than to other localities. The idea was to draw on local culture, interests, needs and concerns and to make programmes involving and about people in the locality. The evidence we have read suggests that local authority providers and voluntary organisations find that local radio managers are willing to help, particularly in publicity about courses, provided that the local community adult educators can translate their information into the language of the media. In some cases 'the reality falls short of the vision'.[4] Lovett remarks that local radio broadcasts, to be successful, need the support of a network of committed participants.[5]

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1. Vallekoop, L., 'Open School Netherlands', in Kaye, A. and Harry, K., 1982.
2. Cepeda, L.E., 'Radio ECCA, Canary Islands',in Kaye, A. and Harry, K., 1982.
3. All the above case studies, in greater detail, are available in mimeo from the Distance Education Research Group, Open University. Of particular interest in those papers is an example of local initiative by Verniers, C., 1981, Presentation de l'Action Collective de Formation de Charleroi et Reflexion sur la roleque Mass Media peuvent y jouer. (No English translation is available.)
4. Gartside, P., 'Local radio and community education', in Visual Education, November 1977.
5. Lovett, T., 'Community education and local radio', in Scottish Journal of Adult Education, Vol. 4, No. 2, Spring 1979.

A most illuminating critique of local radio is given by Wright, 1982, based on his report as an Independent Broadcasting Authority fellow, 'Local Radio and Local Democracy; a Study in Political Education', 1979/80.(a)

Wright argues that the low turn-outs to vote in local elections show a lack of interest in local affairs. The local press had contracted and concentrated so that the arrival of local radio seemed to promise much for local political participation and awareness. By 1982, there were nearly sixty BBC and commercial stations. According to the White Paper issued in 1966, BBC local stations were 'to foster greater awareness of local affairs and involvement in the community'. The 1971 White Paper promised the same aims for local commercial stations except that they would also be involved in 'popular programming'. Some hard promises continued to be made:

- Hallam (Sheffield) committed itself to establishing 'a dialogue between the government and the governed' in its region;
- Pennine (Bradford) promised 'a two-way channel of communication' between citizens and local elected members;
- Victory (Portsmouth) 'would not shrink from any local issue which demands attention and publicity'.

Thus, Wright suggests, such examples testify to the expectation that local radio would be engaged in something more than 'pop, prattle and profits'. He found that:

- minority interests were usually relegated to a time when the mass exodus to television has taken place;
- local broadcasters regarded local politics as a minority interest;
- there was an abundance of community advice giving and information on everything from freezers to flatulence but no commitment to active citizenry;
- Opinion Research Centre, in 1980, taking an area served by both a BBC and a commercial station, found that:
  - 28% of local radio listeners could remember hearing anything from any source during the preceding month about what the city council was doing compared with 68% who heard nothing;
  - the ORC findings corresponded with the findings of the Maud Committee researchers in the 1960's (30% and 69% respectively);
  - there was no real evidence that the arrival of local radio had increased people's knowledge about what their local council was doing.

(a) This is available from IBA.

When questions were asked specifically about local radio, replies suggested that;

- 38% of local radio listeners had heard a local radio programme of some kind on local government matters during the last year;
- 57% had not;
- 54% of listeners thought that local radio had not made them more aware of local politics;
- 53% thought that there was not enough information and discussion on local radio about what the local council was doing compared with only 30% of listeners who thought there was enough material of this kind;
- 56% (39% against) of local radio listeners reported that they would like to hear some broadcast proceedings of their local council.

Phone-ins were alleged to be a means of local participation in issues. A monitoring study of four local radio stations in 1979 showed:

- the topics for phone-ins were usually chosen very loosely from themes suggested by press handouts or local papers;
- they were often presented in an unstructured and unformed way;
- local political issues were hardly ever chosen for discussion;
- 14% of listeners surveyed had ever 'phoned in (almost twice as many men as women);
- about half of those who had never 'phoned in thought that they might on some occasion, but working class listeners were significantly less likely to think that they might 'phone in.

Wright alleges that BBC local radio stations were attempting to find an audience by imitating the commercial stations and were abandoning their access slots and educational programmes in favour of the formula radio of sequence programming.[1,2]

One pilot scheme that has been carefully monitored is the joint venture of the Women's Institutes in Norfolk, the Open University and Wensum Lodge Adult Education Centre. Open University course material (print and video-cassettes) was supplied to study groups drawn from members of the Women's Institutes. The project consisted of three courses, each lasting for ten weeks and each involving between three and four hours

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1. Wright, A., Local Radio and Local Democracy, available free from Independent Broadcasting Authority, 70 Brompton Road, London, SW1, written as an IBA Fellowship study.
2. Quotations taken from Wright, A., 'Radio stations deaf to local politics', in New Statesman, 23rd April 1982, as Wright's more recent article and views.

study time per week. The majority of the study was home based but the courses also included four discussion group sessions, each lasting about one and a half hours, where students on the same course could meet and talk over the problems that they had experienced. These sessions took place in the adult education centre and were supervised by a discussion group leader appointed by the Women's Institute.

The fact that Open University material is specifically written for home study was seen to be a definite advantage in the case of students in rural areas such as Norfolk where public transport is infrequent.

The results of a survey of the 36 students suggested that:

- there were basically two types of student. First, younger members of the WI with young families, relatively well qualified, who were most likely to register for the Industrial Archaeology and Design in Everyday Life courses. Second, the older members, with grown-up families, usually with formal qualifications, who were likely to register for the Water Conservation course;
- both the above groups were already heavily involved outside the home in a wide range of societies and had had little or no recent involvement with courses of even the slightest academic nature;
- the courses offered could not be said to compete in any way with existing provision in the community;
- over four fifths of the students said that they would be prepared to pay to take a similar course;
- eighty per cent of students would be prepared to pay £5 or more; forty per cent would be willing to pay £8 or more;
- one student in four was directly involved in local government and other political organisations;
- the most popular type of organisation that students belonged to was 'Religious or Church' (4 out of every 10 students);
- the students, on average, had to travel eighteen miles to get to their discussion groups. The average attendance rate for all discussion groups was about 85% of total possible attendance. The course with the lowest level of attendance had the highest proportion of students with short journeys;
- attendance rates seemed to depend on the students' views on how <u>interesting</u> and how <u>useful</u> the discussion meetings were to them;
- the project did <u>not</u> provide a particularly good test bed for the TV films as a number of technical faults occurred with the machines

themselves and because of the technical quality of some of the video-cassettes.

Students reported three ways in which they had benefited; the extension of an interest or a new interest, intellectual benefit and personal development. The findings suggest strongly that students get benefits from courses such as these almost regardless of the course content.[1]

Another example of cooperation is the use of the Open University's 'The First Years of Life' and 'The Pre-school Child'. These courses were aimed primarily at parents and parents-to-be.[2] The Open University and Health Education Council (in cooperation with the Pre-school Playgroups Association) were concerned that they should be used by informal groups who would be encouraged to take the course booklets on individual topics. It was hoped that though the course would be sent to a nominal individual student, this student would pass on the material, loan it or form a learning group with neighbours.

Professionals, including those concerned with the more formal adult education, such as local authority bodies, were encouraged to initiate projects but most of the projects were set up by community associations, and groups of mothers who met together in 'Mothers and Toddlers' groups or neighbourhood groups. Professionals and para-professionals used the materials in training and as resource materials. Parents used the materials for information, discussion, as learning aids and a source of ideas. There were instances of home-made video films being produced to supplement the TV components of the course. Some 5% of registered students (441) reported that they would use the course 'as part of their job'. Some 64 schemes had been reported, each involving from 3 to 4 people; in one case, 184 people.

Seven case studies are reported in detail, namely:

- Glasgow-Maryhill: the adult education departments in Maryhill bought four sets of the 'Pre-school Child' course and was helping a group of 26 mothers (£10 per course was 'a barrier which should not be under-estimated');

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1. Calder, J. and Baines, S., 'The Norfolk Experiment', Open University Community Education Evaluation Group Paper, No. 4, June 1978.

2. Calder, J. and Lilley, A., 'Informal and Alternative Uses of "The First Years of Life" and "The Pre-school Child"', Open University Community Education Evaluation Unit, May 1979.

- Glasgow-Govan: the course was used on a tenement estate as part of the work of developing a home-school link;
- Bournemouth: a group was formed in a drab post-war Council estate with very few community facilities; the members of this group were conscious of their failure at school and with the written word. This group was formed by the Adult Literacy Organiser of Dorset;
- Durham: the Health Authority sponsored courses on 'The First Years of Life' for expectant mothers in Newton Aycliffe. Midwives and Health Visitors selected mothers who were to receive materials and formed groups from those attending ante-natal classes;
- Nottingham: Health Visitors in Nottinghamshire were briefed in a series of half-day courses on the uses of the materials, and at the time of reporting some 40 Health Visitors had used the course with groups of mothers and in work with schools;
- Bedford: members of a 'Mothers and Toddlers' group obtained 'The Pre-school Child' course through the Adult Education Centre. As a group they had started to pass on course material to other people;
- Cheshire: the local authority initiated a scheme in collaboration with the Pre-school Playgroups Association. One of the results was that a group of mothers said that they would like to know more about child psychology and a course was therefore mounted at the local Adult Education Centre for them.

Perhaps the most illuminating result of this project was the number of projects started by professionals on their own initiative. 46 out of the 64 projects reported were in this category. 11 out of 64 schemes were initiated by professionals with institutional backing. But at least 14 of the 46 projects could be better described as being initiated by community outreach workers with the support of the local education authority. We see yet again how far local initiatives depend on the network of local education authority adult education resources and the essential role of local education authority provision as a platform for growth in many cooperative schemes.

By 1980 there were some 31,000 students registered on the two courses described above. Some ten per cent of these were sponsored, that is the fee barrier had been removed. The Open University persuaded two radio stations to select subject areas from the course material for use in a series of radio programmes. Questionnaires were sent out under the joint

names of Pennine Radio, The Open University, and The Telegraph and Argus, a local paper which also cooperated by producing articles in the joint names of The Open University and BRMB local radio station (Birmingham area). The results suggested that the booklet which was issued free and which consisted of six topics was mainly taken by women (96%). Further:

- about 25% of Pennine and BRMB users had no educational qualifications;
- about 90% had children, of whom just over 90% had two children;
- less than 10% were in full-time employment;
- over 50% had lived in the area for five years or more;
- just over 50% belonged to voluntary organisations;
- booklet users were by and large content with their booklets;
- less than 15% were definitely interested in joining self-help groups;
- about 64% read some of the articles in the newspaper.

The authors argued that the booklet reached a wider population than in the case of the sponsored scheme. It extended the use of materials by the more educationally disadvantaged and encouraged their participation through printed learning materials. Appendix 3 is a report by the radio producers which illustrates some of the challenges of such cooperative ventures. For example, the radio producers thought that 'the OU course is very, very middle class, at times embarrassingly so' .... 'we did get rid of some of the OU-ese language' ' .... we did eliminate some of the more southern/ suburban situations which occurred in the course books'. In other words, courses which are produced for national consumption need to be adjusted to suit local conditions. [1] We have no doubt that a course designed for Birmingham or Bradford would need similar treatment if used by local radio in Essex. All the above does not detract from the producers' view that it was 'certainly something we would like to try again'. [2,3]

This project illustrates that the geographical area of the 'community' may be defined by the technology used. If local radio is used the community area seems to be a circle with a radius about fifteen miles from the transmitter.

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1. Lilley, A., The Local Radio Experiment - Main Report, Open University Community Education Evaluation Group, April 1980.

2. Mosey, R. and Owen, M., Appendix 3 in Lilley, 1980, The Producers' Report.

3. See also, Calder, R. and Ballard, A., The Sponsored Places Pilot Scheme, Open University Community Evaluation Paper No. 13, Community Education Evaluation Unit, December 1981.

As a contrast, a project on a council estate may serve a community within a circle of half or one mile radius. But the choice of a technology which widens the geographical definition of the local community may also limit access; for example, 'about half the free place organisers reported some difficulties with the course, mostly in the reception of VHF radio broadcasts and the timing of television programmes'.[1]

Sometimes, broadcasts or the provision of materials are designed to encourage the setting up of study circles on the Swedish pattern. It is worth noting that in Sweden 'not all "study circles" really turn into study circles' and much depends on the training of study circle leaders if the circle is to cater for the development of knowledge, emotional development and community experience.[2,3]

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1. Shields, J., The Free Place Scheme for P911 - 'The First Years of Life', based on questionnaires to coordinators and free place organisers. Community Education Evaluation Unit, Report No. 9, September 1979.

2. Byström, J., Icke alle 'Studie Cirklar' blir inte Studie Cirklar Stockholm, Raben and Sjögren, 1978. (Not all study circles turn into study circles.)

3. Barnes, N.H., 'How to make the most of educational broadcasting', in Teaching Adults, Vol. 5, No. 2, February 1982, NIAE.

7.0 TRAINING FOR LOCAL AND COMMUNITY EDUCATION

Though most training is under the guidance of regional bodies, the Department of Adult Education or University Extra-mural Boards and the Regional Advisory Councils, much takes place at local level arranged by the local education authorities and/or voluntary associations.

There have been suggestions that training in adult education does not reflect sufficiently the demands of community education. One such proposal, based on research experience in community work, offered the following programme:

- practical work in a community project;
- studies in the theory and practice of community development;
- market research and the social services;
- sociology;
- popular culture;
- learning through doing theory and techniques;
- sociology of education;
- philosophy of education. [1]

Fairbairn [2] suggested that 'training in Community Colleges should be undertaken by the Principal and staff themselves with the assistance of the Advisory Service, the local university schools of education and colleges of education/polytechnics on an on-the-job, after school and short-term basis. The Area Further Education Officer and other FE advisory staff would obviously be greatly involved as well. Areas having experience of Community and Village Colleges would have to live off their own accumulated experience in the first place. New practices would be developed and the old ones committed to paper and adopted. There would be a good deal of case work and a great deal of study of education as a continuous process. The psychology and philosophy of education in the community in the widest sense would figure importantly. There would need to be much emphasis on educating the whole person, on the approach to "education permanente" to the teaching and learning of adults and adolescents who have left school. The concurrent teaching of adults and students would have to be studied in depth. Understanding of new approaches to learning for adults which

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1. Lovett, T., Memorandum on Proposed Training Course in 'Community Adult Education', Workers' Educational Association, London, March 1971.

2. Fairbairn, A.N., 'In-service training needs of the Community College', in British Journal of In-service Education, Vol. 2, No. 2, Spring, 1976.

might, for example, start simply by an "open-access" to machine tools in the design centre, to photographical enlarging equipment, to the needle-craft facilities, simply under supervision and not being taught, provided these new recruits could show to the supervisor that they could handle equipment without breaking it. The relativity and practice of educational technology in the widest sense from CCTV to the making of one's own video-discs/cassettes would figure prominently. An understanding of the potential of the Open University course possibilities and, more importantly, how to develop the Open University approach so that it becomes meaningful to a wider audience of students and adults will be critical. Understanding of the possibilities implicit in developing liaison with local radio stations' educational services, with cultural and recreational societies in the neighbourhood, with the social and vocational guidance services, and so on, will all be part of the training regimen. So too will the possibilities implicit in link courses for students with the local technical college. Finally, much time will need to be spent on public or community relations - not an aspect of work to which much attention is generally paid by schools - good publicity and, of course, the management of what will be a relatively more complex "time-table" than the ordinary comprehensive school's'.

We have quoted Fairbairn at some length as his article demonstrates that the skills required by a teacher/tutor to contribute fully to local community education are extensive.[1,2]

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1. See Mee and Wiltshire, 1978 (ibid)

2. See Graham, T. Daines J. et al, The Training of Part-time Teachers of Adults, Department of Adult Education, University of Nottingham, 1982.

8.0 THE CONTRIBUTION OF NATIONAL AND REGIONAL BODIES TO LOCAL COMMUNITY EDUCATION

We have not dealt with these resources in this volume as the following volumes, particularly, contain full details:

Vol. 1 - Mature Students
Vol. 4 - Open Learning and Distance Education
Vol. 5 - The Voluntary Field

Suffice it to comment, therefore, that members of the local community have at their disposal the services of Extra-mural Boards, of the Workers' Educational Association, of the voluntary associations, the broadcasting organisations, the Regional Advisory Boards and many other national and regional bodies listed in the NIAE Year Book. These are all important for they enrich and contribute to adult education within the local community and at the same time they offer individuals opportunities which may only be organised beyond the bounds of local community resources.

9.0 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

There are various types of research appropriate to local community education. These are:

- investigative research, obtaining privileged materials about organisations;
- developmental research, that produces outcomes that help the community work practitioner and project worker to make decisions about goals, priorities and strategies in their work;
- action research, which is the planned interaction between researcher and practitioner;
- evaluation research, which seeks to monitor the activities of a community work intervention and to assess the outcomes of such interventions. The outcomes may be the process or the products of the community activity;
- knowledge-development research, which purports to generate theories and generalisations about the nature of the community work intervention.

Our review suggests that most of the work we have read is in the areas of action research, evaluation research, and in some attempts which have been made in knowledge-development research. There seems to be a massive gap in investigative research [1,2,3,4] largely because specific reports of HM Inspectors and of local authority advisers to date have been confidential. Further, developmental research seems to have been neglected or not to have been reported.

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1. Thomas, D.N, 'Research and community work', in Community Development Journal, Vol. 15, No. 1, January 1980.
2. Watson, K., 'Community education; prospects for the 1980's', in New Era, Vol. 61, No. 1, January/February 1980.
3. Boucouvalas, M., Interface; Life-long Learning and Community Education; Towards a Research Agenda, Research in Community Education; Research Report, 79-104, Mid-Atlantic Center for Community Education, Virginia University, 1979.
4. Barnsley, A., 'Whitgift Adult Education Centre, Grimsby, and a Social Survey of the Immediate Neighbourhood, M.Ed., University of Hull, 1977, unpublished.

In more detail:

- there has been little research on the characteristics, motivational skills and experiences of those who have joined community groups;[1]
- there has been little research into the organisation and functioning of those agencies who employ and sponsor community workers;
- policy analysis is a much neglected but important area of research.

An American writer has suggested that action research concerned with the community/school should have, at least, the following attributes:

- there should be participation of both researchers and researched;
- change and dysfunction should be continually monitored;
- problems of conflict and disequilibrium should be described;
- differing perceptions should be analysed and described;
- divergent views should be explored;
- pilot testing should always precede the implementation of a full programme;
- unplanned outcomes should be anticipated and described;
- the transactions between protagonists and antagonists should be evaluated;
- the researchers should be capable managers and tutors as well as researchers and thereby be adept at eliciting responses;
- the unity of programme development and evaluation should be preserved.[2]

The above desiderata have been observed in most of the action-research we have read; for example, Fordham et al. The major gap is the lack of follow-up research. Clearly it is possible to allocate major resources to a particular community, to create enthusiasm for and participation in adult education. But what happens when the researchers depart? Is the community better off? Have the research funds allocated to action researchers been misdirected in the sense that the ten criteria given above describe the functions of a sensible administrator or manager who would evaluate their activities as a normal part of management?

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1. Thomas, D.N., Research and Community Work, a paper for the course in Social Research Methods, University of Surrey, April 1977.

2. Talmage, H., 'Evaluation of local/school/community programmes; a transactional evaluation report', in Journal of Research and Development in Education, Vol. 8, No. 3, 1975.

There seems to be general agreement in the research documents we have read that there is a need for longitudinal studies of particular community organisations, community schools, colleges, and of other centres serving the local community.[1] The studies of E.M. Hutchinson in Leicestershire illustrate the value of this approach. Without such longitudinal research certain forms of organisation may acquire a hagiographic mesmeric quality which allows them to quietly ossify. Yet they continue to receive an allocation of resources to the detriment of new initiatives. But to do this requires in Britain a new attitude from fund-raising sources. Our argument for continuing longitudinal research is supported by Armstrong (1977) when he writes, 'the meaning of community itself has now become totally fluid in a highly mobile society and a single definition of it, particularly one based on a traditional static view of the "neighbourhood" is much too limited. In addition, "education" is proceeding rapidly along paths outside formal structures, and theories and constructs concerning these patterns are being hardened by empirical data'.[2]

Thus there seems a general case for a continuing series of research projects at the local community level to ensure a quick response by providers. Aspects of such research which have been suggested by researchers, both in Britain and North America, are as follows:

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1. Illinois Community College Board, Springfield: Research Needs and Priorities as Perceived by Community College Administrators in Illinois, Illinois Community College Board, Springfield, Research Report 143, February 1979.

2. Armstrong, R., 'New directions for community education', in Community Development Journal, Vol. 12, No. 2, 1977.

- organisation, administration, management and programmes of local providers; [1,2,6,7,11,12,13,16,29,32]
- the sharing of resources amongst institutions and voluntary organisations in the local community; [19,24,25,26,27,28,29,30,32]
- programmes; [3,7,9,15,22,23]
- student recruitment; [3,8,9,15]
- community or local demographic data, population, income, ethnic distribution and educational trends; [1,8,9,10]
- in-service training needs of staff; [1,4,14,17]
- longitudinal studies of community college (or local colleges) on student achievement and values; [1,8,9]
- procedures and standards for awarding credit for life experience; [1,18]
- the use of local radio; [20,21]
- the effect of fee levels on student demand; [5,8]
- their effect on the health, welfare and social life of their neighbourhood; [7]
- techniques for decreasing student attrition. [1]

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1. Illinois Community Colleges (1979)
2. Udell (1978)
3. Tatham (1978)
4. Miller et al (1979)
5. Response Analysis Corp, Princeton (1978)
6. Cosard (1979)
7. Stock (1974)
8. Hutchinson (1978)
9. Jennings (1980)
10. Fairbairn (1978)
11. Williams (1978)
12. Barber (1977)
13. Jackson (1976)
14. Watson (1980)
15. Kent-Ballantyne (1979)
16. Chadwick (1980)
17. Lovett (1971)
18. Guiton (1977)
19. Mills (1979)
20. Jones and Lovett (1971)
21. Shields (1979)
22. Zwerling (1980)
23. Vaughan (1980)
24. Lovett (1974)
25. Jackson and Lovett (1971)
26. Legge (1974)
27. Marshall
28. Eyster (1975)
29. Jackson (1970)
30. Fordham (1979)
31. Henderson (1977)
32. Lawson (1977)

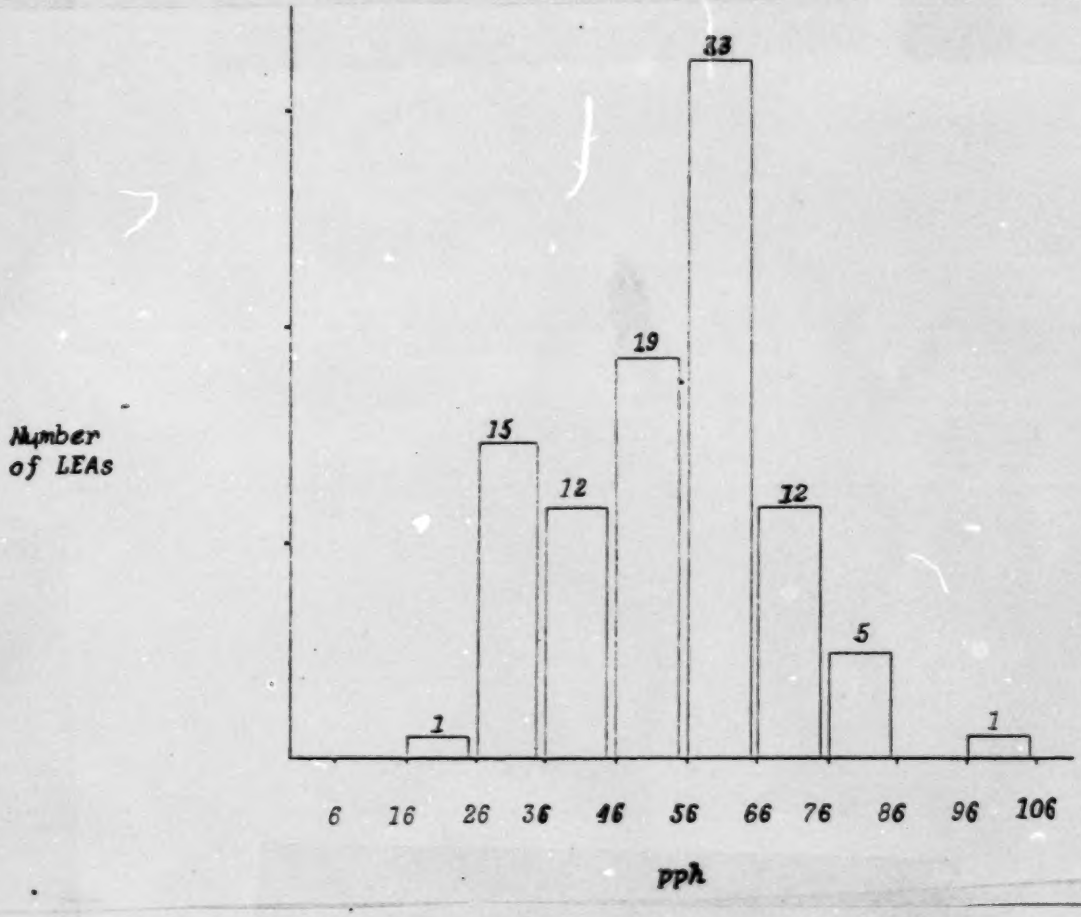
SURVEY OF FEES charged by
LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES for
ADULT EDUCATION COURSES in (conducted by NIAE and ACACE)
OCTOBER/NOVEMBER 1982

NON-VOCATIONAL COURSES (usually meaning non-examination courses)

1 Fees in pence per hour (pph)

Calculations based on 98 replies give a mean fee of 55 pph (1981 51 pph, 1980 41 pph) and a median fee of 58 pph (1981 50 pph, 1980 41 pph), ie: £11 for a course of 2 hours per week for 10 weeks.

The range of fees is from 25 to 104 pence per hour (1981 21 to 95 pph, 1980 15 to 90 pph).



ie: 33 LEAs charge between 56 and 65 pph.

(Last year the distribution centred on a single mode and in 1980 the distribution was bi-modal.)

2 Reductions in fees for second and subsequent courses

The relevant responses (N = 98) indicate:

		(1981 N=100)	(1980 N=91)
No such reductions in	68%	(78%)	(78%)
Some fee reductions in	19%	(12%)	(16%)
A maximum fee limit for multiple enrolments in	12%	(10%)	(5%)

SOME CONCLUSIONS

It is clear that the notion of 'community' is difficult to define. Often it is a word attached to the title of an existing service or institution where little substantial change has taken place or is planned to take place. But equally, there are examples of services or institutions which once redesignated 'community' offer new services and accept new roles. On balance, the pressure for a community approach has reinvigorated much of adult education; as H.E.S. Marks has remarked, it would be unreasonable to attempt conclusive judgments on the many varieties of community colleges and schools based on practice up to the present.

GCE EXAMINATION COURSES

3 Fees for one O level

The 88 relevant responses produce a mean figure of 36 pph (1981 33 pph, 1980 28 pph) within a range of 19 to 75 pph (1981 16 to 66 pph, 1980 10 to 52 pph)

Note: (a) 60 hours tuition per year assumed
(b) evening rates used where these differ from day rates (applies to 2 LEAs).

In these LEAs (N = 88) O level fees (in pph) are:

		(1981 N=93)	(1980 N=91)
Less than non-vocational fees in	73%	(70%)	(71%)
The same as non-vocational fees in	22%	(25%)	(20%)
More than non-vocational fees in	6%	(5%)	(9%)

4 Fees for one A level

The 77 relevant responses produce a mean figure of 33 pph (1981 30 pph, 1980 26 pph) within a range of 18 to 100 pph (1981 16 to 66 pph, 1980 10 to 55 pph).

Note: (a) 75 hours tuition per year assumed
(b) evening rates used where these differ from day rates (applies to 2 LEAs).

In these LEAs (N = 77) A level fees (in pph) are:

		(1981 N=79)	(1980 N=83)
Equal to O level fees in	44%	(43%)	(59%)
Less than non-vocational fees in	78%	(76%)	(83%)
The same as non-vocational fees in	17%	(20%)	(12%)
More than non-vocational fees in	5%	(4%)	(5%)

5 Reductions in fees for second and subsequent courses

The relevant responses (N = 89) show:

		(1981 N=95)	(1980 N=75)
No reductions in	65%	(69%)	(76%)
Reduced fees or fees related to time which might allow more than one subject to be studied in	35%	(31%)	(24%)

CONCESSIONS

6 Old Age Pensioners

Non-vocational courses - from the relevant responses (N = 98):

		(1981 N=97)	(1980 N=97)
Reduced fees in	79%	(75%)	(79%)
Discretionary reductions in	7%	(9%)	(7%)
Full non-vocational fee in	4%	(3%)	(3%)
No fee in	9%	(12%)	(10%)

Examination courses - from the relevant responses (N = 89):

		(1981 N=93)	(1980 N=77)
Reduced fees in	52%	(44%)	(56%)
Discretionary reductions in	10%	(18%)	(12%)
Full examination course fee in	13%	(16%)	(17%)
No fee in	25%	(22%)	(16%)

7 Under 18s

Non-vocational courses - from the relevant responses (N = 97):

		(1981 N=96)	(1980 N=98)
Reduced fees in	69%	(63%)	} (85%)
No fee in	10%	(11%)	
Discretionary reductions in	4%	(6%)	(6%)
Full non-vocational fee in	16%	(20%)	(9%)

Examination courses - from the relevant responses (N = 90):

		(1981 N=82)	(1980 N=81)
Reduced fees in	51%	(38%)	} (90%)
No fee in	33%	(43%)	
Discretionary reductions in	4%	(8%)	(6%)
Full examination course fee in	11%	(11%)	(4%)

8 Unemployed Persons

Non-vocational courses - from the relevant responses (N = 98):

		(1981 N=93)	(1980 N=94)
Reduced fees in	42%	(32%)	(33%)
Discretionary reductions in	30%	(35%)	(34%)
Full non-vocational fee in	2%	(9%)	(12%)
No fee in	27%	(24%)	(21%)

Examination courses - from the relevant responses (N = 91):

		(1981 N=92)	(1980 N=79)
Reduced fees in	23%	(14%)	(20%)
Discretionary reductions in	30%	(41%)	(37%)
Full examination course fee in	4%	(11%)	(16%)
No fee in	43%	(34%)	(27%)

9 Physically Handicapped

Non-vocational courses - from the relevant responses (N = 93):

		(1981 N=89)	(1980 N=87)
Reduced fees in	26%	(20%)	(25%)
Discretionary reductions in	45%	(38%)	(45%)
Full non-vocational fee in	17%	(26%)	(10%)
No fee in	12%	(16%)	(20%)

Examination courses - from the relevant responses (N = 86):

		(1981 N=86)	(1980 N=73)
Reduced fees in	17%	(13%)	(18%)
Discretionary reductions in	47%	(40%)	(48%)
Full examination course fee in	20%	(28%)	(11%)
No fee in	16%	(20%)	(23%)

10 Adult Basic Education

From the relevant responses (N = 94):

		(1981 N=95)	(1980 N=94)
No charge for adult basic education in	53%	(51%)	(40%)
No charge for literacy and a reduced fee for numeracy in	0%	(1%)	(4%)
No charge for numeracy and a reduced fee for literacy in	0%	(1%)	
No charge for literacy and a full non-vocational fee for numeracy in	1%	(0%)	(0%)
Reduced fee compared with non-vocational fee in	30%	(31%)	(32%)
Discretionary reductions in	16%	(12%)	(15%)
Full non-vocational fee in	1%	(5%)	(9%)

METHODS OF PAYMENT

11 From the relevant responses (N = 98) for courses lasting more than one term:

		(1981 N=100)	(1980 N=96)
Full payment in advance is required in	23%	(25%)	(22%)
Payment per term or in instalments in	70%	(66%)	(71%)
Payment per term or in instalments at some centres only in	7%	(9%)	(7%)

Notes: Discount incentives are offered by 9 LEAs and at some centres only in 4 other LEAs (1981 3 and 4 LEAs respectively).

Credit card facilities are offered by 8 LEAs and at some centres only in 6 other LEAs (1981 8 and 6 LEAs respectively)

'Taster' fee arrangements are offered by 5 LEAs and at some centres only in 13 other LEAs (1981 3 and 9 LEAs respectively)

'Payment per meeting' facilities are offered by 2 LEAs and at some centres only in 8 other LEAs (1981 2 and 3 LEAs respectively)

CHANGE IN COURSE LENGTH, FEES AND ENROLMENTS

12 Increase or decrease in course length compared with October/November 1981

Non-vocational courses - the relevant responses (N = 96) show the average time per individual meeting has:

Increased in	1%	(1981 and 1980 question not asked)
Remained the same in	92%	
Decreased in	7%	

Non-vocational courses - the relevant responses (N = 97) show the average number of meetings per term has:

Increased in	2%	(1981 and 1980 question not asked)
Remained the same in	90%	
Decreased in	8%	

13 Increase or decrease in fees compared with October/November 1981

Non-vocational courses - the relevant responses (N = 96) show fee levels:

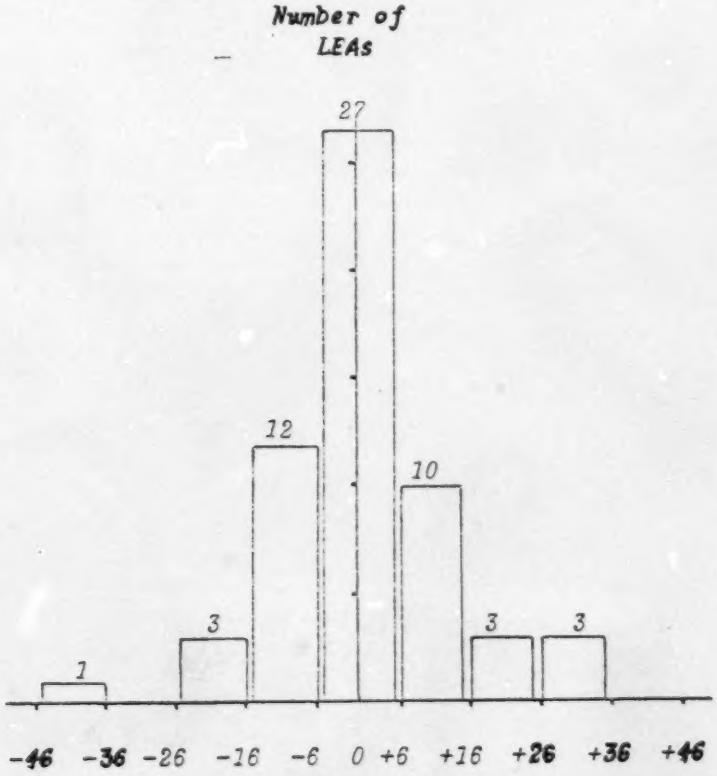
		(1981 N=96)	(1980 N=92)
Increased in	88%	(90%)	(92%)
Remained the same in	8%	(9%)	(4%)
Decreased in	4%	(1%)	(3%)

Examination courses - the relevant responses (N = 94) show fee levels:

		(1981 N=96)	(1980 question not asked)
Increased in	82%	(88%)	
Remained the same in	11%	(11%)	
Decreased in	5%	(0%)	
Increased for O level but remained the same for A level in	2%	(1%)	

14 Increase (+) or decrease (-) in non-vocational enrolments compared with October/November 1981

Responses were received from 59 LEAs. These are represented in the histogram below. From this number of returns no accurate indication of trends is really possible. However this limited information does suggest that very little change in enrolments has occurred. The 1981 picture based on returns from 49 LEAs showed a very slight decline. The 1980 figures, based on returns from 71 LEAs, indicated an 11% decrease in enrolments compared with 1979; this percentage was later substantiated by the DES returns and published statistics.



ie: 12 LEAs show a reduced enrolment of between 6% and 15% compared with the previous year.

It would be misleading to derive precise correlations between high levels of increases in fees and falls in enrolment because so many other variables affect the issue - numbers of staff, publicity coverage, socio-economic levels of catchment areas, etc.

NON-VOCATIONAL FEES TO NON-RESIDENTS*

15 A request was made for an indication of fees charged to non-residents and 36 replies commented on fees charged to non-residents for non-vocational courses. Of these, 14 LEAs charge non-residents the same fee as their own residents; 15 LEAs charge increased fees (ranging from 1¼ times to 4½ times the residents' fee); 5 LEAs charge increased fees depending on a variety of circumstances, 1 LEA charges non-residents the same fee as their own LEA would charge, and 1 LEA does not admit non-residents to its non-vocational courses.

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*The term 'non-residents' refers to those students attending courses at a given institution and whose place of residence is outside the administrative area of the local authority controlling that institution, ie. they are not therefore ratepayers of the providing authority.

The Council and the Institute would be glad to receive any comments in writing on the findings of this survey, as well as considered suggestions for modifications which might be incorporated into future similar surveys, possibly for issue in October 1983.

REVIEW OF EXISTING RESEARCH IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

The complete series of monographs includes:

VOL. 1 MATURE STUDENTS
VOL. 2 THE ELDERLY
VOL. 3 THE DISADVANTAGED
VOL. 4 OPEN LEARNING AND DISTANCE EDUCATION
VOL. 5 THE VOLUNTARY FIELD
VOL. 6 EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION, ADVICE, GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING FOR ADULTS
VOL. 7 NUMERACY AND MATHEMATICS FOR ADULTS
VOL. 8 TRAINING THE EDUCATORS OF ADULTS
VOL. 9 ADULT EDUCATION AND UNEMPLOYMENT
VOL. 10 ECONOMICS AND ORGANISATION OF ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION
VOL. 11 PSYCHOLOGY OF ADULT LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT
VOL. 12 EDUCATION AND THE LOCAL COMMUNITY

All of which are now available. Further monographs and catalogues of materials in the field of ADULT BASIC EDUCATION may be prepared in 1983-84.

All monographs can be obtained from NIAE (address below) at £3.00 each including postage (cash with order please).

Computer print-outs are also available on the topic areas and searches can be carried out and print-outs supplied to individual requirements. Details can be obtained from The Librarian, NIAE (address below).

The National Institute publishes several journals and other books of interest to adult educators and also a Residential Short Courses booklet (a twice-yearly listing of weekend and up to three-week study courses, family activities, study tours and summer schools of interest to the general public). Regular journals are ADULT EDUCATION (quarterly), YEAR BOOK (published each September), TEACHING ADULTS (twice yearly) and STUDIES IN ADULT EDUCATION (each September). A full publications list is available from NIAE.

CONFERENCES: The Institute holds two main conferences each year, the Annual Study Conference (a three day residential conference normally held post-Easter) and a one day LEA Chairmen and Officers Conference (held in London towards the end of November) to which members of other organisations are also welcome. In addition special national and international seminars, workshops and study tours are organised as circumstances require. Details and booking forms are available from the Institute.

Up-to-date information regarding NIAE events and publications can be obtained from Prestel. (Master reference 211, page 21124)

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